DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 389 364 JC 960 009

AUTHOR	Griese, David, Ed.; Levine, Judith R., Ed.
TITLE	Teaching of Psychology: Ideas and Innovations. Proceedings of the Annual Conference on Undergraduate Teaching of Psychology (9th, Ellenville, NY, March 22-24, 1995).
INSTITUTION	State Univ. of New York, Farmingdale. Coll. of Technology.
PUB DATE	Mar 95
NOTE	174p.; For selected individual papers, see JC 960 010-023. For the 1994 proceedings, see ED 377 774.
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC07 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	*Active Learning; *Classroom Techniques; *College Instruction; *Cooperative Learning; Group Discussion; Higher Education; Instructional Development; *Instructional Innovation; Learning Strategies; *Psychology; Teaching Methods; Two Year Colleges; Undergraduate Study
IDENTIFIERS	American Psychological Association

ABSTRACT

The 16 papers in this proceedings describe strategies and practices used in undergraduate psychology courses at two- and four-year colleges. The following presentations are included: (1) "Using the IDEAL Problem Solving Method in Groups," by R. Scott Smith; (2) "The Soul of Active Learning: Connecting Psychology and Faith," by Rhonda Hustedt Jacobsen; (3) "Using Feature Films To Promote Active Learning in the College Classroom," by Virginia R. Gregg, Cheryl A. Hosley, Alice Weng, and Raymond Montemayor; (4) "Cooperative Teaching Designed To Enhance Cooperative Learning," by Ronald Cromwell and Linda Dunlap; (5) "A Computer-Assisted Simulated Case Study Application of the Revised (1992) APA Ethical Principles," by John B. Morganti, Beth A. Garigen, and Sebastian LoGuidice; (6) "Helping Students To Experience the Classroom: Interactive Techniques for the Personality Psychology Class," by Randall E. Osborne; (7) "Using Personality Scales as an Experiential Learning Activity," by Patricia A. Oswald; (8) "Thinking Critically and Understanding Empathically: Techniques for Teaching Adolescent Development," by Emily J. Johnson and Sara M. Sullivan; (9) "Too Many Tangents or Too Many Zombies in the House? On Using Discussion-Teaching Methods More Effectively," by Beth Cunin and Bert Cunin; (10) "Revealing Their Riches," by Mary Ann Lohmueller and Raymond Walters; (11) "Collaborative Learning Across the Psychology Curriculum," by Tracey T. Manning and Sally N. Wall; (12) "Research on Trial: A Pedagogy for Research Methods Instruction," by Michael A. Britt; (13) "The Perception of Familiar Objects," by Robert P. Cavalier and Richard K. Wesp; (14) "Using a Computerized Laboratory as a Springboard for Transforming a Traditional Lecture Course," by Peter A. Hornby; (15) "Teaching Statistics: Shaping, Fading, and Concept Formation," by George C. Fago; and (16) "Gender and Patterns of Communication," by Stacey Beth Zaremba and Sandra Elaine Fluck. (TGI)

ED 389 364

Teaching of Psychology: Ideas and Innovations

Proceedings of the Ninth Annual Conference

March 22-24, 1995

Ellenville, NY

David Griesé and Judith R. Levine, Editors

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INTRODUCTION

The Ninth Annual Conference on Undergraduate Teaching of Psychology was held March held March 22 - 24, 1995 at the Nevele Country Club in Ellenville, New York. The conference was sponsored by the Psychology department of the State University of New York at Farmingdale.

The conference featured two keynote addresses. The first was given by Karen Huffman on "Name that Toon: Innovative Techniques For Active Learning." The second keynote address was given by Robert Baron on "On Being A Stranger In A Distant Land: Reflections on Teaching Psychology to Management Students...And Expectations." In addition, there were 50 other presentations, as well as an array of publishers' exhibits to visit. Sixteen of the presentations are included in these conference proceedings.

The success of this conference was due to the dedicated work of many people. We extend our sincere thanks to the following people for their efforts on behalf of the conference: Dr. Sandra Hartog, and Dr. Gene Indenbaum, who formed the rest of the conference committee; Ms. Barbara Sarringer of the Psychology Department at SUNY Farmingdale for providing administrative assistance; Ms. Kelley Pavinelli and Mr. Doug Niles of Allyn and Bacon Publishers for supporting the presentation by Robert Baron, and for providing a pre-dinner reception; and Ms. Rebecca Herschler of John Wiley Publishing for arranging for Karen Huffman to address us.

David A. Griesé
Judith R. Levine

CONFERENCE PROGRAM

the 9th annual conference on undergraduate

TEACHING of PSYCHOLOGY:

IDEAS & INNOVATIONS

presented by

The Psychology Department

of

SUNY FARMINGDALE
FARMINGDALE, NY

Wednesday, March 22 - Friday, March 24

1995

PROGRAM

Wednesday, March 22, 1995

Registration 2:00-2:40

Session 1 2:45 - 3:45

Rm 1 ***Workshop: Using the IDEAL Problem Solving Model in Groups***
R. Scott Smith, Utica College of Syracuse University, NY

Bransford & Stein's (1993) IDEAL problem solving model has been found to be a useful framework for encouraging students to apply concepts from psychology to specific situations. This workshop will illustrate the steps used in composing groups of students to solve problems, suggestions to the students for preparing for group problem solving quizzes, classroom exercises to develop skills in reasoning like a psychologist and solving problems in groups, and examples of the kinds of application-oriented questions that can be asked.

Rm 2 ***The Soul of Active Learning: Connecting Psychology and Faith***
Rhonda Hustedt Jacobsen, Messiah College, PA

Active learning helps the student connect the new academic subjects they are learning with other things they already know or have experienced. Since many undergraduate students have had their most basic understanding of human nature shaped by their religious nurture and associations, active learning in psychology may require us to bring religious faith constructively into our courses. This presentation describes a senior seminar course which deals explicitly with connections between psychology and faith.

Dealing with the Anxieties of Adopting Active Learning Methods
Robert A. Bernstein* & Liane Summerfield, Marymount University, VA

Active learning is often not adopted by teachers because of their discomfort about trying new methods in the classroom. This presentation will discuss these anxieties that we all face and suggest some effective ways of dealing with them. Also, interpersonal strategies, including self disclosure, will be presented that often help the discussions flow more easily.

* indicates session chairperson

Rm 3 ***They Don't Have Time to Waste! Active Learning for Adult Returning Students***
Libby Wyatt Ortiz* & Helene Robbins, St. Thomas Aquinas College, NY

Adults are returning to college campuses for a variety of reasons. These students place unusual demands on the college classroom. They bring high levels of motivation, along with varying degrees of confidence, writing skills, and study strategies. This presentation will address the ways college faculty can best serve the unique needs of returning students through active learning experiences.

Teaching an Adult Development 6 Credit Seminar Course
Barbara Dickson-Parnell & Victoria A. Fisher, Neumann College, PA

This presentation will describe an elective seminar course on Adult Development. The course is designed to include three contact hours with the instructor and an Experiential Life Project which is designed to enhance the theoretical material.

Session 2 4:00 - 5:30

Rm 1 ***Workshop: Motivational Techniques in High School Psychology***
Stephanie Sylva, Paramus High School, NJ

Participants will be involved in activities that cover the following topics: behavior modification, perceptual sets, defense mechanisms and conflict situations, birth order, abnormal psychology, bystander apathy, humor, and death and dying.

Rm 2 ***Using Feature Films to Promote Active learning in the College Psychology Course***
Virginia R. Gregg, Cheryl A. Hosley, Alice Weng, & Raymond Montemayor, The Ohio State University, OH

We will discuss the use of feature films as a tool for encouraging active learning in the college-level psychology class. Specifically, we will present reasons for using films in the classroom, suggestions for selecting and incorporating films, and activities which can be used in conjunction with films. In addition, we will illustrate these points by showing clips from films chosen for use in a developmental psychology class. Lists of activities, relevant journal articles, and appropriate movies will be provided.

Cooperative Teaching Designed to Enhance Cooperative and Active Learning
Ronald Cromwell & Linda L. Dunlap, Marist College, NY

One method for co-teaching a course will be presented by two faculty from different disciplines. The course co-taught was specifically designed to encourage cooperative and active classroom learning. Examples of specific teaching methods will be presented.

A Computer-Assisted Simulated Case Study Application of the Revised APA (1992) Ethical Principles
John B. Morganti*, Beth A. Garigen & Sebastian LoGiudice, State University College at Buffalo, NY

We will describe and illustrate a computer-assisted case study simulation program developed by the authors. It is designed to aid teaching of the content and application of the newly revised APA Ethical Principles and Code of Content (1992), Users make a series of choices of courses of action at critical junctures in the scenario. Case outcomes are presented and ethicality is evaluated against the relevant principles and code.

Rm 3 ***The Use of Role Playing Within a Forensic Psychology Discussion***
Michael Fass, North Miami Beach Senior High, FL

Although forensic psychology is a burgeoning field, most introduction texts provide little information about this exciting field. This presentation will describe a two hour role playing activity which introduces to the student both a general understanding of the field of forensic psychology as well as placing emphasis on the issues of competency to stand trial and the insanity defense. A follow up activity incorporating the play Equus will also be described.

Preparing Graduate Students to Work in Industry
Ronald G. Shapiro, I.B.M., NY

Have your students asked you what they might do if they were to work in industry or how they might prepare for an industrial career? Would you have liked to have had more information for them? If so, this session is for you! A Ph.D. Psychologist working in industry will discuss what psychologists do in industry, how your students might best prepare to work in industry, and how they might establish contact with and interview in an industrial setting.

On Teaching Psychology of Prejudice
Fred Millan*, SUNY College at Old Westbury, NY

This presentation will discuss a course entitled Psychology and Prejudice which attempts to : a) help students identify their own prejudices through the use of various interaction techniques including discussion, audio-visual aids, presentations, debates, and journals, and b) demonstrate that everyone has prejudices that manifest in different contexts.

Reception 6:00-7:00
Courtesy of Allyn & Bacon

Dinner 7:00

Keynote Speaker: Karen Huffman

Name that Toon: Innovative Techniques For Active Learning

Courtesy of John Wiley Publishing Co.

Hospitality Room Following Dinner

Thursday, March 23, 1995

Breakfast 7:30 - 9:00

Session 3 9:00 - 10:30

Rm 1 ***Workshop: Sex and Drugs and ... the Ethical Handling of Sensitive Topics and Materials in the Psychology Classroom***
Peter M. Hogan, Fitchburg State College, MA

The undergraduate psychology curriculum is diverse and covers many potentially upsetting and controversial topics. Teaching materials and learning exercises designed to involve the student might also serve to increase the risk that students might be upset or offended. This workshop will identify relevant ethical principles, will present

realistic case examples for participant discussion, and will review ethical strategies for ensuring maximum learning with minimum upset.

Rm 2 ***Classroom Demonstrations in Child Psychology***
Edward J. Murray, Kent State University, OH

Student groups demonstrate the theoretical models and exemplify empirical data of child psychology through the process of classroom presentations. The demonstrations use young children or adults to stress the quality of individual differences. The presentations include physical development, motor development, conservation, conscience development, modeling, memory, aspects of intelligence, extinction, and learning disabilities.

Learning to do Studies in Child Psychology by Working in the Zone of Proximal Development
Gerald R. Levin, Bucknell University, PA

A child psychology laboratory course was developed in which students started doing studies in the first week and worked their way through three levels of proficiency, doing a total of four or five studies and ending with a major project. Mastery tests paced them through a text; with report writing, ad lib conferences, and oral presentations substituting for conventional class meetings. The course seemed to generate both competence and a sense of self-efficacy as a researcher.

Involving Students in Developmental Psychology
Patricia S. Laser*, Bucks County Community College, PA

This presentation will involve the description and discussion of one of the author's most popular undergraduate courses, "Human Growth and Development". This is a writing intensive course, where at least 50% of a student's grade is derived from written work. The course includes two field observations, an individual research project, peer review, "Baby Day", Show and Tell", and interactive learning throughout.

Rm 3 ***Children's Literature as a Venue for Exploring Theories of Personality***
Diane J. Urban, Westchester Community College, NY

To many students, the theories of Freud, Skinner and Rogers seem too abstract and perhaps even "far-fetched". To afford students the opportunity to become actively involved in understanding these theories, they were asked to read a children's book of their choice and analyze it from one of these theoretical perspectives. This presentation will review how the theories and assignment were presented to the class. Active participation of the audience will be encouraged, and sample papers prepared by students will be shared.

Helping Students to "Experience" the Classroom: Interactive Techniques for the Personality Psychology Course
Randall E. Osborne, Indiana University East, IN

I will describe two "interactive" techniques that I use that encourage students to relate their own personal and life histories to the material in a personality course. Rather than cringing when students try to relate the material to what they know best, I encourage them to process the material at their own level and, in so doing, give them a path by which their competency with the material can be demonstrated.

Using Personality Scales as an Experiential Learning Activity
Patricia A. Oswald*, Iona College, NY

This presentation will discuss the use of personality scales/instruments (e.g. Perspective Taking; Davis, 1980) as an experiential learning activity designed to engage students in an active learning process. Learning objectives will be outlined, some specific personality scales that are most suitable for classroom use will be identified, and the applicability of this technique to a variety of courses and topical areas in psychology will be discussed.

Session 4 10:30 - 11:45

COFFEE, PUBLISHERS' DISPLAYS,

and

POSTER SESSION

1. ***Methodology: A Multimedia Tutorial***
Ann Gilchrist, Ulster Country Community College

The presenter will demonstrate a multimedia, tutorial, computer program on the topic of methodology which she created using the Toolbook authoring system. The program employs a graphic or a photograph on every screen to illustrate points. Sound is also used on some pages. The presenter will also encourage conference participants to try the program, and we will share with participants the difficulties of creating multimedia programs.

2. ***Active Learning Portfolios for Underachieving Students***
David L. Watson, Debra A. Kessler, Samia Kalla, Carolyn Kam, & Kozue Ueki, University of Hawaii, HI

Experimental group students who were earning a C grade or lower in an introductory psychology course were required to carry out active learning exercises for two chapters in their psychology text instead of taking the weekly quiz. These students reported that they worked longer than a control group of students who studied as usual for a quiz. The active learning subjects felt the material was easier, liked some of the material better, and knew the entire chapter's material as well as those who had studied for the quiz.

3. ***De-activating Learning through Discussion: When Instructors are Perceived as Extrinsically Motivated***
Kenneth D. Richardson, Ursinus College, PA

Research on learning environments suggests that active learning often depends upon the extent to which students (1) sense a degree of involvement with course material, (2) feel some degree of freedom in self expression, and (3) are actively encouraged to question the opinions of authorities such as the instructor or authors of various readings. While many instructors work to create such environments, a recent trend (referred to by some as "political correctness") involves using classrooms as places for the indoctrination of values that are deemed to be "correct" and not open to question. The present analysis explores student responses to such conditions.

4. ***The Teaching Portfolio -- What It Is and of What Use It May Be***
Cathleen Turner Moore & Barbara Bourbon, Philadelphia College of Pharmacy & Science, PA

The Teaching Portfolio is an alternative to the routine way of evaluating classroom teaching which relies almost exclusively on student ratings. We will describe the basic concept of the teaching portfolio, talk about its potential uses in promotion and tenure decisions, and share our experiences in developing our own portfolios.

5. ***Learning Teaching by Teaching Learning***
B. Runi Mukherji & Janet K. Wright, SUNY College at Old Westbury, NY

Educational psychology can be taught by combining research on development, learning and motivation, educational psychology, and cognitive science with practical information about skills that are needed by teachers. The effectiveness of this teaching can be improved by involving the students directly in applying this theoretical background to the task of running part of the course. We will describe how this approach is implemented in our educational psychology course.

6. ***A Comparison of Multimedia and Traditional Classrooms Teaching Undergraduate Psychology Courses***
T. Dary Erwin & Ricardo Rieppi, James Madison University, VA

A study concerning the effectiveness of a new multimedia "Classroom for the 21st Century" was conducted during the Fall 1993 semester. Results showed that (1) the multimedia sections averaged higher final exam scores than the traditional sections; (2) the multimedia and traditional sections did not differ in scholastic abilities, as measured by SAT scores and GPA prior to course enrollment; (3) neither the multimedia nor traditional section final grades were related to Visual, Auditory, or Haptic learning style preference.

7. ***Using Poetry in a Human Development Course***
Paul J. Chara Jr., Loras College, IA

Human development classes are usually taught from a perspective that emphasizes a scientific and analytical approach. In order to balance the scientific perspective with a more humanistic and experiential one, an approach will be described in which poetry is used to complement the facts of development. This approach will be exemplified through a presentation on one of the topical areas of a developmental course: love.

8. ***An Exploratory Study of Traditional and Non-Traditional Students***
William R. Balch, Penn State University, Altoona, PA

Approximately 200 non-traditional (returning adult) students and traditional students were given a questionnaire to gather information about some of their traits and abilities. Both academic and personal characteristics were assessed from the questionnaire. In addition, the academic performances of the traditional and non-traditional groups were compared. Differences between the two groups that emerged from this exploratory study will be reported. Discussion concerning teaching styles appropriate for each type of student is invited.

9. ***The Dialogue Between Students and Teachers: A Phenomenological Investigation of the Experience of Learning***
James M. Hepburn, Jen Caroll, Amy Hathaway, Jennifer Rem, & Angie Tosten, Waynesburg College, PA

This empirical study, conducted by undergraduate psychology students, utilized a phenomenological research methodology to qualitatively analyze the descriptions of undergraduate students and teachers about their experiences in the classroom. The research findings were used to make explicit the points of convergence and divergence between students and teachers about their expectations, attitudes and approaches to learning. This study may be instructive to college teachers seeking to understand how to enhance their effectiveness by understanding the experiences of students in the college classroom.

10. ***The Mini-Course in Psychology***
Victor P. Garlock, Cayuga Community College, NY

Offering one credit courses covering a single topic in psychology such as Sleep and Dreams or Hypnosis has attracted students and generated high levels of enthusiasm and academic performance.

11. ***Beyond Frustration and Anxiety: A Mastery Training Approach to Psychological Statistics***
Peter M. Hogan, Fitchburg State College, MA

Psychological Statistics is a crucial element of any undergraduate psychology program. But, for some it may be more a survival exercise than a learning experience. The traditional design of psychological statistics is flawed. Transfer of training, and the needs of low confidence students, including many women, remain unaddressed. The consequence may be worsened attitudes and lowered performance. A mastery training approach incorporating a computer laboratory and competency testing is presented as an alternative.

Session 5: 12:00 - 1:00

Rm 1 ***Workshop: Thinking Critically and Understanding Empathically: Techniques for Teaching Adolescent Development***
Sara McFall Sullivan & Emily J. Johnson, University of Wisconsin - La Crosse, WI

Teaching Adolescent Development to psychology majors and non-majors presents particular challenges. The motivations and needs of these students can vary significantly. However, recent research suggests that all students should be engaging in active learning that encourages the development of critical thinking and connected

knowing. In this workshop, participants will be provided with the theoretical background of these concepts, and also will engage in interactive experiences that demonstrate ways to promote critical thinking and connected knowing in the classroom.

Rm 2 ***Workshop: Too Many Tangents or Too Many Zombies in the House?: On Using Discussion - Teaching Methods more Effectively***
Beth Cunin, Rockland Community College, NY & Bert Cunin, Ramapo College of New Jersey, NJ

Discussion teaching methods can serve as an exciting vehicle for learning and growth, and at other times may leave instructors with a sense of failure. The workshop will focus on some of the issues, themes, and problems that may arise in the use of discussion methods in the teaching of psychology. The concepts and themes presented will be developed through lecture, discussion, and role-playing.

Rm 3 ***Revealing Their Riches***
Mary Ann Lohmueller*, Raymond Walters College, OH

This presentation describes an innovative approach to teaching undergraduate psychology in a self-directed group discussion format. The approach successfully enhances the learner's critical thinking and communication skills while challenging learners and faculty to take on unique roles.

Teaching of Psychology: Addressing Students' Needs
Anatasia Kim & Raichell Jordan, University of California, Berkeley, CA

In order to improve and enrich both the curriculum and the methods of teaching in psychology, it is of absolute necessity that ideas, recommendations, and innovations be entertained and considered from the perspectives of not only those who teach but also from those who are being taught. Thus, as a student of psychology, I believe that if we are to achieve the kind of academic excellence that stimulates and challenges the minds of students, then classrooms must get smaller and close interactions must be established between professors and students. It is only through such an interactive, cohesive manner that we will be able to pass onto the future generations the tools and strengths of meeting the challenges, demands, and needs of an ever growing, multicultural, pluralistic society.

Lunch 1:00-3:00

Keynote Speaker: Robert Baron

On Being A Stranger in a Distant Land:
Reflections on Teaching Psychology To Management Students
-- And Expectations

Courtesy of Allyn & Bacon

Session 6: 3:30 - 5:00

Rm 1 ***Workshop: Aspects of Radical Psychology: Alternative Approaches to the Teaching of Personality and Behavior***
Steven Bindeman, Strayer College, VA

Active learning can most easily take place within a subjective testing orientation since objective testing tends to reinforce the lecture/note-taking habit. Because I employ a testing procedure that requires my students to write essays from questions that look for more than mere rote answers, I have been able to implement several innovative practices within my classes. They include the following: an essay assignment concerning the student's personal history, a classroom discussion of each student's selection of three key words to describe his or her personality, a term-long project whereby the student is required to change someone's behavior (but only with that person's permission) using operant techniques.

Rm 2 ***Collaborative Learning Across the Psychology Curriculum***
Tracey T. Manning & Sally N. Wall, The College of Notre Dame of Maryland, MD

Collaborative activities, whether formal projects or informal processes, are valuable forms of active learning. We will identify practical, workable ways to incorporate collaborative learning without sacrificing course content, thus overcoming what is often a major obstacle to faculty use of such methods. It also addresses group process issue like evaluation and accountability, group development, time management, prevention and control of social loafing, and other student problems. Examples will be drawn from Introductory Psychology, Social Psychology, Child and Adolescent Development, and Research Methods.

Educational Research Triads: Structuring Opportunities for the Sharing of Skills and the Pursuit of both Group and Individual Interests
Nicholas H. Apostoleris, Roger Bibace, & James Laird, Clark University, MA

A format for the functioning of a research group is presented which is designed to encourage a diversity of types of intellectual relationships among faculty members, graduate students, and undergraduates so as to afford maximum opportunities for each group member to attain personally-relevant ends. Special emphasis is placed on how the pursuit of knowledge is furthered through the use of Educational Research Triads since even complex, labor and energy intensive projects can be conducted with a minimum of funding and a maximum of student enthusiasm and participation. The workings and structure of a currently active research group are described, and feedback from participating undergraduates, graduate students, and faculty is included.

Research on Trial: A Pedagogy for Research Methods Instruction
Michael A. Britt*, Marist College, NY

One goal of Research Methods is to encourage students to practice their critical thinking skills when they read published research. "Research on Trial" is a courtroom simulation exercise in which one group of students defends an article, while another group criticizes it. The class applies their knowledge of research methodology to decide on the validity of the author's conclusions.

Rm 3 ***The Perception of Familiar Objects: Class Activity with Students as Subjects in a Perception Exercise***
Robert P. Cavalier* & Richard Wesp, Elmira College, NY

Familiar objects in our everyday environment are shown in class and students are requested to make certain judgments about these objects. There is immediate feedback on results of the exercise. This forms the basis for a discussion of problematic perceptual phenomena as an everyday occurrence. This classroom procedure will be duplicated for the audience.

"Sensor Blocks" and "Breath-A-Sketch": Students Engineer Products that Apply Psychological Principles
Gail Martino, Boston College, MA

This presentation will describe an assignment in which students were asked to design products (devises, games, and toys) that integrated psychological principles. Students prepared design prototypes and demonstrated them to the class. This assignment is argued to (1) help students appreciate industry applications of psychological principles, (2) engender creative problem solving, and (3) help students learn to work with others. Methods for stimulating industry interest in students' products will be discussed.

Using a Computerized Laboratory as a Springboard for Transforming a Traditional Lecture Course
Peter A. Hornby, SUNY Plattsburgh, NY

This paper describes how incorporating a computerized laboratory component into a traditional lower division, lecture oriented, cognitive psychology course has fundamentally transformed the way the course is being taught. The new laboratory-based course is motivated by different instructional goals, provides more active/constructive learning experiences, produces greater peer interaction, leads to more informal student/teacher roles, and supports more diverse methods of evaluation.

Reception 6:00-7:00

Dinner 7:00

Hospitality Room Following Dinner

Friday, March 24, 1995

Breakfast 7:30 - 9:30

Session 7: 9:30 - 11:00

Rm 1 ***Workshop: Teaching Psychology in a Learning Community: Notes from a Work in Progress***
Harald Abrahamsen & Angelika Hoeher, SUNY College of Agriculture and Technology, Cobleskill, NY

This interactive workshop session will highlight the development of a learning community which links active learning strategies, the integrated teaching of psychology, social problems and literature, and the use of VAXNotes for active student participation.

Rm 2 ***Rethinking Teaching Statistics to Psychology Students***
George Rotter, Montclair State University, NJ & Naomi Rotter, New Jersey Institute of Technology, NJ

The availability of desk-top computers and user-friendly statistical packages has permitted the first authentic changes in the teaching of undergraduate statistics. This technology allows instructors to focus on the understanding of statistical output rather than the plugging in of values into raw score formulas. Future psychologists should emerge better prepared to deal with data than their forebears.

Adding Interactivity to Teaching Statistics in the Switched On Classroom
Kent L. Norman, University of Maryland, MD

The activity and engagement of students in introductory statistics can be greatly increased in a switched-on classroom: an electronic classroom with computers, a local area network, and large monitors. Examples are given in which the students design studies, collect the data across the network, and run the statistics themselves. A software package called "HyperCourseware" that runs in either the Windows™ or the Macintosh™ operating system is used to integrate all of the materials and activities in a seamless environment. Using HyperCourseware, both the relevance and the number of examples presented can be increased due to the speed of communication and computation and the ease of use of the system.

An Operant Approach to Data Analysis: Learning Statistics by Shaping and Fading
George C. Fago*, Ursinus College, PA

A method is described which teaches basic techniques of research design and data analysis to beginning psychology majors. Student interest and motivation are generated by helping students to learn to use statistical software to analyze data from their own research. Laboratory-based learning exercises which ensure high success rates (virtually 100%) are described and sample exercises are presented and discussed.

Coffee Break

Session 8: 11:20 - 12:50

Rm 1 ***Workshop: Learning as an Active Verb: Theory into Practice***
Michael D. Spiegler, Providence College, RI

This workshop will present general and specific techniques for fostering active learning in psychology courses. The aims of the workshop are for participants: (1) to take away specific methods for fostering active learning which they can implement immediately; (2) to learn to generate creative ways to foster active learning; and (3) to gain firsthand experience about active learning from a learner's perspective. The techniques include free writes, brainstorming, problem solving, experiential learning, silence, role playing, lecture committee, games, question-directed small group discussions, use of manipulables, and storytelling. Participants must be willing to actively learn about active learning (how else?!).

Rm 2 ***Using Computer Conferencing to Conduct Group Projects***
Margaret D. Anderson, SUNY Cortland, NY

The value of group projects in university classes has long been recognized. Today we are becoming increasingly aware of the role of electronic communication in our academic lives. This paper reports on an integration of group projects and a computer conferencing system. The goals of the project, administration, and grading procedures will be discussed. Instructor and student evaluations of the project will be presented, and suggestions for developing similar projects will be offered.

Creating Language: Actively Learning about Psycholinguistics
Douglas A. Vakoch, SUNY at Stony Brook, NY

A course outline is discussed in which students integrate a theoretical understanding of language with their own practical experiences in developing their own systems of communication. Throughout the course, students learn about the form and functions of communication by studying the evolution of language while simultaneously creating increasingly sophisticated languages and then teaching them to other students. By providing guidelines constraining how students may design their languages (e.g., at one stage, allowing no movement of the tongue or lips), student learn about characteristics of language that set it apart from the types of communication by other species.

Gender and Patterns of Communication
Stacey Zaremba* & Sandy Fluck, Moravian College, PA

Our students conducted a gender analysis on the communication patterns of their own videotaped conversations. In this presentation we will describe this group project and share some excerpts from our students' videotapes. Student responses and reactions to this project will also be provided.

Lunch 1:00

CONFERENCE COMMITTEE

Judith R. Levine, Chairperson
David Griesé
Sandra B. Hartog
Gene Indenbaum
Barbara A. Sarringer, Executive Assistant

Using the IDEAL Problem Solving Method in Groups

R. Scott Smith, Ph. D.
Utica College of Syracuse University
March, 1995

Bransford & Stein's (1993) IDEAL problem solving model has been found to be a useful framework for encouraging students to apply concepts from psychology to specific situations. This workshop will illustrate the steps used in composing groups of students to solve problems; suggestions to the students for preparing for group problem-solving quizzes; classroom exercises to develop skills in reasoning like a psychologist and solving problems in groups; and examples of the kinds of application-oriented questions that can be asked. The potential benefits of this approach will be discussed in light of the findings of Craik & Tulving (1975) and Dansereau (1983) on levels of processing and network organization as aids to recall, as well as Sherif's (1966), Aronson's (1988) and Johnson & Johnson's (1987) work on the value of cooperative learning strategies.

Often, teaching psychology seems to be complicated by the endless proliferation of terms and jargon, not to mention the inherent breadth of the field. Particularly in Introductory Psychology courses, the desire to cover content wrestles with the desire to acquaint students with the thinking process that psychologists use to develop said content. While the group problem solving quiz method of class exercises and testing described here does not completely take the sting out of this decision making process, it does accustom students to *using* the information in their texts and lectures according to certain principles of reasoning; which appears to enhance their ability to recall and retain that information in turn.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

This group problem solving quiz method was devised as an attempt to apply several principles from cognitive and social psychology. From the cognitive standpoint, Craik and Tulving's (1975) work on levels of processing suggested that the more sophisticated forms of processing information such as evaluating how it does or does not relate to other information and making use of the information to address a particular situation will make it more likely to be retained in memory and even easier to retrieve. After I began using this method, I ran across Dansereau's (1983) research on learning strategies, which suggests that readers can improve retention by selecting important concepts and facts and organizing them in a network by thinking of ways to link the terms. This provided further support for requiring students to write down the links between their concept in a given chapter and the other concepts in that chapter.

Bransford and Stein's (1993) IDEAL problem solving model proved to be a helpful way to teach students about systematically addressing important factors in solving any problem, as well as providing a good introduction to empirical reasoning. Giving students the opportunity to evaluate the relevance of given information, structure a problem, propose alternative solutions, anticipate the outcomes of those solutions, and evaluate the process involved gives them practice in "thinking like a psychologist."

The social psychology input to this method is primarily influenced by the educational psychologists Johnson & Johnson (1987), although Sherif (1966) and Aronson (1988) also contributed significantly. Not only are cooperative learning strategies at least as effective as competitive ones in many instances, they are

actually more effective in most when properly structured, especially with regard to the kinds of tasks this method requires (Johnson & Johnson, 1987). The use of menus of concepts which are divided among students within a group is a variant of the "Jigsaw Classroom" method of cooperative learning (Aronson, 1988; Johnson & Johnson, 1987). Working in groups also has many desirable effects such as providing a chance to create superordinate goals that help students appreciate diversity while enhancing their skills in cooperation (Sherif, 1966; Aronson, 1988).

Since the capacity for working in groups is an important component of this method of classwork and testing, Peer Evaluation Forms are provided which list ten important behaviors for task and relationship maintenance within groups, and time is always scheduled for groups to reflect upon how effective their group process was and what can be improved. (Johnson and Johnson, 1987). I recommend a review class prior to the quiz to discuss and practice group problem solving skills and in addition, some time to process these issues when you return the quiz.

APPLICATION

The process involves choosing key concepts or chapter headings from any given assigned chapter. These "menus" of concepts are composed of the information and ideas the teacher feels are most important; often they can contain several related terms or basic concepts. For example, if the chapter covered is one on Social Psychology, the concepts might be as follows:

(1). Social cognition & the fundamental attribution error
(2). Impression formation & attraction
(3). Attitude formation & change
(4). Attitudes, behavior, and ethnocentrism
(5). Group decision making and performance
(6). Conformity, compliance, & obedience
(7). Altruism
(8). Aggression

[This example is derived from Lester Sdorow's text *Psychology (1995)*]. Individual instructors would, of course, decide which concepts they wished to focus on in a chapter. While all students are required to read and be familiar with **all** of the assigned chapter, they will be assigned semi-randomly or randomly to groups of four or five, ideally, but no more than six (semi-random assignment involves asking students to count off from one to *n*, *n* being the number of students in the class divided by the desired group size, then rounded down). In the above example of concepts, I'd recommend using a group size of four, and requiring each member to choose two concepts. If the class is not evenly divisible by whatever group size you select, randomly divide the remainder among the existing groups and have the additional members choose their concepts from the same menu. Thus, each member of each group will choose a particular concept or concepts to specialize in (which, to repeat, does not exempt them from the requirement of reading the whole chapter).

All students in a class are also required to prepare a Concept

Sheet, where they compare and contrast their concept in a given chapter with the other concepts in that chapter. In the example given above, let's say that a student chose Concept #4, Attitudes, behavior, and etnocentrism. Their Concept Sheet should contain comparisons and contrasts of how this concept does (or does not) relate to Concepts (1), (2), (3), (5), (6), (7), and (8). As an appendix, I have included a sample concept sheet, which will be important to share with your students prior to the quiz. Since it is rare that one covers an entire textbook, choose a chapter you're not covering to demonstrate how a concept sheet should be done. In the early part of the semester, it helps to let the students bring their Concept Sheet in with them to the quiz, although I suggest having them limit it to no more than both sides of a 8.5x11" sheet.

In class, students work in groups to figure out how to apply their understandings of their concepts to common situations (some more detailed and clearly specified than others). For example, they may work on a question such as "What principles of social psychology apply to situations where you agree to do something in a group that you aren't really interested in doing, say, going with a group of your friends to see a movie that you're pretty sure will be boring?" A deliberate attempt is made to not constrain the situation too much in order to give the students practice at considering what factors might be relevant in such a situation. They are also encouraged to add or qualify any information given in the scenarios if they see a need to do so in order to apply their concepts effectively; the main requirement is that they clearly connect the additional information with the concept and support their reasoning.

Testing is done in essentially the same format as the classroom exercises, albeit a bit more formalized. Quizzes are evaluated on the basis of (1). Adequacy of application of concepts to the scenario; (2). Adequacy of statement of the concept; (3). Effectiveness of use of the IDEAL problem solving approach; (4). Wideness of range of concepts brought to bear effectively on the problem; and (5). Effectiveness of teamwork. To elaborate a bit, it is important for students to either explain how aspects of the scenario exemplify the concept in action, or to explain clearly how they would apply the concept to the scenario in order to address the question. Using the above example of agreeing to go to a movie you feel is boring, a response that identified the possible operation of conformity or compliance effects within a group of friends would be an effective way of addressing the question, especially if they discussed ideas such as reference group and normative influence in the context of this scenario.

The advantages of this group problem solving method for psychology classes (while particularly helpful for Intro, I have also used it for Cognitive and a slightly modfied version for Principles of Behavior Change) are that it makes use of the learning and practice of problem solving, critical thinking, and group interaction skills to learn the content of your subject area.

The reports of many of my students over the past three years who have gone on as psychology majors from Intro do seem to indicate that they feel more comfortable in their practica and other courses that stress application of material. A further advantage is that it exposes students to skills of working in groups, which most college graduates working in managerial or professional capacities after graduation will need to do at one point or another.

The disadvantages of this method are that it does require that you cut down on the amount of material that you can cover so as to allow time to acquaint them with problem solving techniques and teamwork skills and the discomfort that students sometimes have with working in groups, especially when they are being tested. I console myself with the thought that it is better for students to have a working grasp of less information than a compendium of terms and ideas which they can't see the point of knowing. Dealing with the discomfort that some students (usually the ones with the highest GPAs) have in being in an interdependent learning and grading situation requires some honesty up front about potential problems in relying on others and an emphasis on various incentives for high individual performance (e.g., bonuses for particularly effective use of one's concepts).

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Sherif, M. (1966). *In common predicament: Social psychology of intergroup conflict and cooperation.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

APPENDIX:
SAMPLE CONCEPT SHEET

SAMPLE CONCEPT SHEET

Concept #4: Self-monitoring: Affects how consistent attitudes are with behavior. Hi self-monitors adapt behavior to fit situations & lo self-monitors are relatively consistent in behavior across situations. So, lo self-monitors show more consistency between their attitudes & their behaviors. The more specific the connection between the attitude & the corresponding behavior, the more predictive the attitude is of the behavior. Cognitive dissonance: Festinger's theory that having ideas that are inconsistent with each other causes an unpleasant state of tension. The tension is relieved if you can limit how responsible you feel for the inconsistency (if you're paid $20 to lie about how boring a task was, you'll have little dissonance because the $ was justification enough for lying), or by changing your attitudes (if you're paid $1, you'll tend to change your opinion of how boring the task was). Self-perception: Bem argued that we infer our own attitudes by observing our behavior, much in the same way we infer other's attitudes. Bem's theory seems to better explain the effects of behavior on poorly-defined attitudes, while Festinger's better explains the effects of behavior on well-defined attitudes. Prejudice: A positive or negative attitude toward a person based on his or her membership in a particular group. Discrimination is acting on one's prejudices. Authoritarian personality: A personality pattern characterized by by being obedient to superiors & domineering to subordinates (authoritarianism), prejudiced in favor of their own group & against other groups (ethnocentrism), and unwilling to accept their own faults but willing to place them on members of other groups (projection). factors influencing the development of the authoritarian personality are parents who give little affection, rely on physical punishment, and refuse to accept any backtalk. Jigsaw method: By giving classmates from varied ethnic groups different information that they have to combine later to solve problems, you can reduce prejudice and promote more liking by promoting inter-group cooperation. It doesn't always work, though, because if group efforts fail, members of one group may attribute the responsibility for this to the members of the other group.

Concept #1 Key Terms: Kelley's attributional principles (consistency, distinctiveness, & consensus), Weiner's attributional dimensions (internal/external, stable/unstable), fundamental attribution error, actor-observer bias, self-serving bias. How it Relates: prejudice relates to the fundamental attribution error & actor-observer bias because of the over-reliance on dispositional explanations for other's behavior (since we know more about our situational constraints than anyone else's). Self-monitoring relates to Kelley because low self-monitors are likely to be highly consistent & low in distinctiveness, which could lead to more dispositional attributions being made about their behavior.

Concept #2 Key Terms: Impression management, social schemas, stereotypes, self-fulfilling prophecy, proximity, similarity, mere exposure effect, self-disclosure. How it Relates: the authoritarian personality relates to social schemas & stereotypes because these are cognitive processes that are overused by this personality type. Self-perception theory could relate to the self-fulfilling prophecy in that our acting in certain ways shapes our attitudes, which could lead to our acting in the same ways again in the future.

Concept #3 Key Terms: Attitude, social learning theory, peripheral route, central route, credibility (trustworthiness, attractiveness, & similarity), two-sided argument. How it Relates: authoritarian personalities would be more susceptible to persuasion through peripheral routes from sources perceived as similar to them.

Concept #5 Key Terms: Group, group polarization, risky shift, groupthink, social facilitation, social loafing. How it Relates: the jigsaw method could be undermined by social loafing, or it could be helped by social facilitation (depending on the skill level of the members). Authoritarian personalities are more susceptible to groupthink.

Concept #6 Key Terms: Conformity, compliance, foot-in-the-door technique, door-in-the-face technique, obedience. How it Relates: foot-in-the-door technique relates to either self-perception theory or cognitive dissonance theory ("I signed the petition for the candidate, so he can't be all that bad. Maybe it's OK to post a sign for him in my yard").

Concept #7 Key Terms: Altruism, negative state relief theory, bystander intervention, diffusion of responsibility. How it Relates: social loafing could be a factor in diffusion of responsibility and lack of bystander intervention (especially when there is a lack of perceived expertise).

Concept #8 Key Terms: Catharsis, frustration-aggression hypothesis, observational learning, deindividuation. How it Relates: authoritarian personalities are though to be developed in part via operation of the frustration-aggression hypothesis.

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The Soul of Active Learning

Connecting Psychology and Faith

Rhonda Hustedt Jacobsen, Ed.D.
Messiah College
Grantham, Pennsylvania

Outline of a Presentation at the
Ninth Annual Conference on Undergraduate Teaching of Psychology
Ellenville, New York
March 22, 1995

THE SOUL OF ACTIVE LEARNING: CONNECTING PSYCHOLOGY AND FAITH

Introduction

When we talk about "active learning" we generally refer to the kinds of activities that help the student connect the new academic subjects they are learning with other things they already know or have experienced. For many undergraduate students, their most basic understanding of human nature has been formed as a result of religious nurture in their homes and places of worship. This is true whether these students are enrolled at public universities, private non-religious colleges, or private church-related schools. Dealing with religious issues then would seem like a natural place to explore some significant connecting points between the discipline of psychology and the broader lives of our students.

What does it look like to teach about connections between religion and psychology? At our church-related college, this concern has been addressed for many years. Like psychology departments at other church-related colleges, we include a religious dimension in a number of our courses, but we especially emphasize this dimension in the senior "capstone" course. I have taught this senior seminar for the past several years, and this presentation will describe some of the approaches that I have experimented with in teaching this seminar.

Definitions.

"Religion" refers to a formalized system of symbols, ideas, and ritual practices.

"Faith" refers to the ways various individuals try cognitively and practically to connect the religion(s) they share with others to the spirituality that tinctures their own individual existence.

"Spirituality" refers to an individual's general sense of the sacredness of the universe or of the mystery of life.

The Structure of the Course

I. Religion and Psychology

The course begins with a fairly objective and analytical comparison of data drawn from psychology and from religion. This analytical approach deals explicitly with historical and contemporary philosophy related to the interface of psychology and religion. It is the most specifically academic of the approaches, in that it requires familiarity with current philosophy of science and some fairly sophisticated understanding of epistemelogical issues. I usually begin this section by pointing out that both theology and science deal with developing theories based upon available data. We then discuss a range of logical options for connecting theological theories and scientific theories. The main purpose of this section of the course is to help students identify their own religious/theological convictions and epistemological presuppositions as they relate to human beings. The purpose of this section is to develop a more refined and nuanced understanding of what science can and cannot claim.

Suggested texts:

Barbour, I. (1990). Religion in an age of science. San Francisco: Harper & Row.

Browning, D.S. (1987). Religious thought and the modern psychologies. Philadelphia: Fortress Press.

Carter, J.D. & Narramore, B. (1979). The integration of psychology and theology. Grand Rapids, MI: Zondervan.

Evans, C.S. (1979). Preserving the person: A look at the human sciences. Downers Grove, IL: InterVarsity Press.

Van Leeuwen, M.S. (1985). The person in psychology. Grand Rapids, MI: Eerdmans.

II. Faith and Psychology

This part of the course deals with explicit behaviors, that is, it looks at how "faith" impacts human behavior or, alternatively, at how faith impacts the study of human behavior. The texts for this part of the course are not particularly philosophical or theological, rather they are behavioral studies describing the role of faith in human life. The range of possible topics is huge. For example, this unit has dealt with professional ethics, with gender roles, and with the distinctives of clinical vs. pastoral counseling. The purpose of this section of the course is to provide examples of the interaction between religious faith and behavioral science at the level of practice as opposed to theory.

Suggested texts:

Lebacqz, K. (1985). Professional ethics: Power and paradox. Nashville, TN: Abindgon.

Myers, D.G. (1993). The pursuit of happiness: Who is happy--and why. New York: Avon.

Reece, R. & Siegal, H. (1986). Studying people: A primer in the ethics of social research. Macon, GA: Mercer University Press.

Van Leeuwen, M.S. (1990). Gender and grace: Love, work and parenting in a changing world. (Downers Grove, IL: InterVarsity Press.)

III. Spirituality and Psychology:

This segment of the course moves into the more individualistic and personal connections between psychology and spirituality. By reading stories of others who have thought deeply and experienced intensely the spiritual dimension of human life without losing sight of the world around them, it is hoped that students will make connections to their own lives. The purpose of this segment is to move the course to the level of personal meaning-making. Frankly, I want students to be inspired at the gut-level by the lives and reflections of exemplary individuals.

Suggested texts:

Coles, R. (1990). The spiritual life of children. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Frankl, V. (1963). Man's search for meaning. Boston: Beacon Press.

Gilkey, L. (1966). Shantung compound. San Francisco: Harper Collins.

Maslow, A.H. (1964). Religions, values, and peak-experiences. New York: Penguin.

Nouwen, H.J.M. (1979). The wounded healer. New York: Doubleday.

Vanauken, S. (1977). A severe mercy. San Francisco: Harper & Row.

Conclusions

The senior seminar is one of the most enjoyable parts of my teaching load, and it has also been a course that most students value. Student evaluation data supports that conclusion. Our evaluation procedures ask students to complete a nationally-normed standardized evaluation form as well as three open-ended questions about the course. The standardized evaluation results are consistently positive, and the written comments, I believe, confirm this conclusion: students are motivated to think deeply simply because of the subject matter of this course, and consequently they feel good about the course as well as about the instructor.

The books and the particular content that I select are helpful with the students that attend my own institution. I am sure that the content would have to be significantly modified to meet the particular needs of students at other campuses. Nonetheless, I think it could provide a useful elective course on most campuses. It's a course that is invigorating to teach because it connects with students and tends to energize their thinking. Once a classroom environment is established that doesn't permit either indoctrination or provocation, the subject seems to encourage careful, even courageous, thinking from students.

Using Feature Films to Promote Active Learning in the College Classroom

Virginia R. Gregg

Cheryl A. Hosley

Alice Weng

Raymond Montemayor

The Ohio State University

Presented at the 9th Annual Conference on Undergraduate Teaching of Psychology: Ideas and Innovations, Ellenville, NY. March 1995.

Using Feature Films to Promote Active Learning in the College Classroom

Reasons for using commercial films

Using feature films in the classroom to teach psychology can promote active learning for several reasons. First, students can have a variety of learning styles. Some learn well using a textbook, while others prefer to hear an instructor verbalize material. Others, however, possess a more visual approach to learning. Using feature films may help these students better understand psychological concepts taught in class.

A second reason why commercial films are beneficial in the classroom is because students find them to be very enjoyable. Students can easily lose interest when lectures are given everyday, with classes eventually becoming monotonous. Using feature films can help to decrease these levels of monotony and stimulate interest. At times, these films can be more enjoyable than educational films that tend to present information in a documentary format.

Feature films are also beneficial because they place psychological concepts and theories into a context that relates to students' real life experiences. While feature films may at times be overly dramatized and unrealistic, material can be presented in a context that pertains to everyday life. Often, when students are provided with numerous theories and concepts, information becomes vague and abstract. When the same information is placed into the life of a character in a film and explored in class, it becomes more understandable and relevant to the students.

Feature films also frequently provide different viewpoints on a situation. Students who have not been previously exposed to diverse perspectives or who are limited in

experience might benefit from these examples. For instance, a common stereotype is that depression is an attempt to gain attention from others or feel sorry for oneself. Those accepting this view might better understand depression by viewing a movie that shows a character encountering this stereotype. Factors related to depression, such as feelings of hopelessness and cognitive distortions, may empathetically draw students into a character, perhaps dispelling some of the common stereotypes of psychological disorders. This same principle also applies to stereotypes and discrimination. For those students who have not directly encountered discrimination, a feature film might help them to understand the experiences of those who have.

Feature films also exemplify certain topic areas in psychology. While any one film is unlikely to cover all areas in a psychology course, films can often be found that illustrate certain topic areas. For example, many films portray psychological disorders such as multiple personality disorder, social phenomena such as stereotypes and aggression, or developmental periods of life such as adolescence. Feature films can also be used to discuss the reciprocal relationship between films and real life. For example, the film Malcolm X was seen to have a large impact on society. Clothing with the "X" on it was commonly seen. Students could discuss how this movie influenced people's ethnic identity, self-esteem and self-concept.

How to incorporate films

Films can be incorporated into the classroom in a number of ways. The extent to which films can be used in the classroom falls along a continuum. The most extreme way of incorporating a film into the classroom is by designing a course solely around the use of films. With this method, weekly movies could be shown, with discussion or recitation sessions used to explore psychological issues seen in the film. Certain concepts or

theories that are relevant and seen in the film could be discussed. This method is probably more suited for courses that are more advanced, such as the Psychology of Women or a class on Psychological Disorders. It may be more difficult in an Introductory Psychology course due to the diversity and extent of material that is covered in this type of course.

Another way that films could be incorporated into the classroom is by showing clips or segments of movies. These clips can be interspersed with lectures and discussions. In this way, instructors can help to supplement lecture material and introduce variety into the classroom setting. A disadvantage of this method is that it can be very time consuming to view a movie and decide which clips to use in class.

Finally, an instructor can show one or two films during the semester or quarter. The instructor could show the film during class, assign it as homework, or schedule a time that the movie would be shown outside of class. A benefit to showing a whole movie is that one can see the totality of the idea or issue that is being addressed. Also, showing clips often takes a scene out of context which may be undesirable. Thus, viewing an entire movie can sometimes be beneficial.

Activities to be used in conjunction with films

There are numerous activities that can be used when incorporating films into the classroom to teach Psychology. Students can be instructed to watch a film that is personally or socially relevant and then write a diary of their own experiences similar to those seen in the film. For example, a movie that focuses on discrimination and stereotypes could be watched, with students then writing about their experiences or the experiences of others confronted with discrimination. Students can also be taught research methodology with the use of films. For example, students can be instructed to

identify and operationalize a construct such as gender roles. While watching a film, they can record gender related behaviors. Comparisons with other students' observations may be made and discussions on the differences, or "researcher bias," may follow. Students can also watch a movie and write a case study on one of the characters. They could, for example, use the DSM and identify certain behaviors of a character that are symptomatic of a psychological disorder. A more flexible and activity is to hold discussions after watching a film or a film clip. The instructor could prepare discussion questions and provide them to students prior to viewing the film or the questions could be used directly by the instructor. An additional activity is to make comparisons between a film and other forms of media such as magazines, books or newspapers. Students could explore the relationships between the portrayals and identify those that are most realistic.

How to select films

There are numerous sources that can help in identifying films to use in the classroom. One option is to solicit suggestions from peers, students or colleagues. These sources can be used to identify movies that are more obscure, but provide a good example of psychological concepts. In addition, the advice of others can be helpful in narrowing down the large field of movies that exist to a more reasonable number that instructors can review. There are also film guide books that can be found in bookstores and some movie rental stores. Descriptions of films and ratings are often provided in these guides. There are also computerized services that can be helpful in finding movies. These services can be used to search for movies by categories, actors or directors.

When using films in the classroom to teach psychology it is suggested that the instructor view the film before hand. Instructors should be aware of violence of language so that they and their students are prepared. In addition, instructors should be aware that

copyright laws exist when using films for instructional purposes. It is advised that instructors consult their institutions for policies and laws.

Films Useful for Teaching Psychology

Mental Health:
Awakenings (1990)
The Bell Jar (1979)
David and Lisa (1962)
Equus (1977)
Fatal Attraction (1987)
The Fisher King (1991)
Freud (1962)
Helter Skelter (1976)
I Never Promised You a Rose Garden (1988)
Mr. Jones (1993)
Nell (1994)
Nuts (1987)
One Flew Over the Cuckoo's Nest (1975)
Ordinary People (1980)
The Prince of Tides (1991)
Psycho (1960)
Rain Man (1988)
Raising Cain (1992)
Silence of the Lambs (1991)
The Snake Pit (1948)
Sybil (1976)
Three Faces of Eve (1957)
What About Bob? (1991)

Child Development:
Au Revoir Les Enfants (1987)
Little Man Tate (1991)
My Girl (1991)
My Girl 2 (1994)
My Life as A Dog (1985)
The Sandlot (1993)
Searching for Bobby Fischer (1993)
The Secret Garden (1988)

Adolescent Development:
Alice's Restaurant (1969)
A Little Romance (1979)
All the Right Moves (1983)
American Graffiti (1973)
Anne of Green Gables (1987)
Another Country (1984)
A Separate Peace (1972)
A Sure Thing (1985)
Birdy (1985)
Blackboard Jungle (1955)
Bloodbrothers (1978)
Blue Denim (1959)
Boyz in the Hood (1993)
Breakfast Club (1985)
Breaking Away (1979)
Brighton Beach Memoirs (1986)
Carrie (1976)
Catch-22 (1970)
The Chocolate War
Class (1983)
Dead Poet's Society (1989)
The Diary of Anne Frank (1959)
Diner (1982)
East of Eden (1954)
Endless Love (1981)
Fame (1980)
Fast Times at Ridgemont High (1982)
Ferris Bueller's Day Off (1986)
Flirting (1991)
For Keeps (1988)
The 400 Blows (1959)
Gregory's Girl (1982)
Heathers (1988)
Just Another Girl on the IRT (1993)
Little Darlings (1980)
Little Women (1994)
Lord of the Flies (1990)
Lords of Discipline (1983)
Menace II Society (1993)
My Bodyguard (1980)
My Own Private Idaho (1991)
Mystic Pizza (1988)
The Outsiders (1983)
Pretty in Pink (1986)
Puberty Blues (1981)
Rebel Without a Cause (1955)
Romeo and Juliet (1968)
Rumble Fish (1983)
Running Brave (1983)
Running on Empty (1988)
Say Anything (1989)
School Ties (1993)
Sixteen Candles (1984)
Smooth Talk (1986)
Splendor in the Grass (1961)
Stand and Deliver (1988)
Stand By Me (1986)
Summer of '42 (1961)
Tex (1982)
West Side Story (1961)
Wish You Were Here (1987)

Adult Development:
The Big Chill (1983)
Dad (1989)
The Four Seasons (1981)
Four Weddings and a Funeral (1994)
Fried Green Tomatoes (1991)
The Graduate (1967)
I Never Sang for my Father (1970)
Joyce at 34: When Parents Grow Old
Kramer vs Kramer (1979)
Parenthood (1989)
Reality Bites (1994)
She's Having a Baby (1988)
Steel Magnolias
Terms of Endearment (1983)
35 Up
Wrestling Ernest Hemingway

Aging:
The Cemetery Club (1993)
Cocoon (1985)
Dad (1989)
Driving Miss Daisy (1989)
Harold and Maude (1971)
Memoirs of a Dutiful Daughter
On Golden Pond (1981)
Wild Strawberries (1957)

Disability Issues:
Bill: On His Own (1983)
Born on the Fourth of July (1989)
Children of a Lesser God (1986)
Flowers for Algernon
Forrest Gump (1994)
Mask (1985)
My Left Foot (1989)
Regarding Henry (1991)
What's Eating Gilbert Grape? (1993)

Substance Abuse Issues:
Clean and Sober (1988)
I'm Dancing as Fast as I Can (1982)
The Lost Weekend (1948)
One Man's Seduction (1983)
The Rose (1979)
When a Man Loves a Woman (1994)

Social Psychology:
Caine Mutiny (1954)
Clockwork Orange (1971)
Lord of the Flies (1990)
River's Edge (1987)

Racial/Ethnic Issues:
American Me (1992)
Black Like Me (1964)
Boyz in the Hood (1993)
Dim Sum (1985)
Eat a Bowl of Tea (1989)
El Norte (1984)
Farewell My Concubine (1993)
Guess Who's Coming to Dinner (1967)
Joy Luck Club (1993)
Jungle Fever (1964)
The Color Purple (1985)
I Know Why the Caged Bird Sings (1979)
A Raisin in the Sun (1961)
Malcom X (1992)
Mandela (1987)
Mississippi Burning (1988)
Mississippi Masala (1990)
Roots
Schindler's List (1993)
School Daze
She's Gotta Have It (1986)
Six Degrees of Separation (1967)
Slaying the Dragon
Stolen Ground
Tampopo (1987)
Thunderheart (1992)
The Wedding Banquet

Education:
Another Country (1984)
Blackboard Jungle (1955)
Dead Poet's Society (1989)
Educating Rita (1983)
Fame (1980)
School Ties (1993)
Stand and Deliver (1988)
To Sir with Love (1967)

Gay/Lesbian Issues:
Longtime Companion (1990)
Maurice (1987)
Serving in Silence
The Times of Harvey Milk
Torch Song Trilogy (1988)

AIDS:
And the Band Played On
Philadelphia (1993)

Advantages of Using Films

- accessible to students with different learning styles
- stimulation of student interest and enjoyment
- exploration of the relationship between films and reality
- demonstration of different viewpoints or perspectives
- exemplification of topic areas in psychology

How to Include Films

- design a film-based course
- show an occasional movie
- show segments of movies to supplement lecture topics

How to Select Films

- suggestions of students and colleagues
- film guide books
- film reviews in newspapers/ magazines
- computer software packages
- on-line information services

Sample Activities

- preparation of character "case study"
- preparation of a diary that explores issues similar to those in the movie
- method for developing observational research skills and defining constructs
- use of in-class discussions
- comparison of media portrayals (e.g., television, magazines, newspaper, literature)
- comparison of films presenting different perspectives

Cooperative Teaching Designed to Enhance Cooperative Learning

Dr. Ronald Cromwell
Director of Teacher Education
Marist College

Dr. Linda Dunlap
Coordinator Undergraduate Psychology
Marist College

At Marist College, a small liberal arts college in eastern New York, most courses are generally presented in a traditional framework. The majority of instructors rely heavily upon the lecture format for content presentation. Written tests and term papers are the most common form of evaluation. Although psychological and educational research has demonstrated that students have a variety of learning styles and benefit from a variety of instructional and assessment techniques, many college teachers have been reluctant to move away from the more traditional approaches.

The reluctance to move away from these methods of instruction and assessment is not surprising because these methods often are effective for many college students. Although effective, it does not mean that they are the most effective they can be or that they are effective for all types of learners. Employers are increasingly making demands for schools to help train students to be critical thinkers. The traditional modes of instruction may limit the development of individuals who will be required to think critically in the highly complex 21st century.

We have been team teaching a course entitled "Integration of Learning Theory and Teaching Methodology" for the past two years. We believe the experiences we have had in this course are applicable to most secondary, undergraduate and graduate level courses.

Administrators and other faculty were not altogether supportive of this cooperative teaching effort. Statements that were made included, "Why would you want to work together?" Administration questioned whether they wanted to support the time and cost for two faculty members to teach one course. Other faculty argued that the course required too much work and that it was not a feasible mode of teaching. We believe the extra effort is justified. We believe this method of instruction helps students to learn collaboration skills by observing instructors with very different styles successfully collaborating.

Marist College, like most colleges, has had relatively few courses that are team taught. Those courses that have team teaching often have one instructor who is responsible for certain sections or aspects of the course and another instructor who is responsible for the other sections. In most cases, each instructor is also responsible for assessment of the students' learning within only their designated sections of the course. Often, only one member of the teaching team is present during class time. The concept of team teaching, in this case, involves dividing up the responsibilities rather than working together to present the course material. The course is more like small mini-units linked together into one course. All too often, the linkage may be weak or even non-existent.

We believe that a team teaching model can be created

that is more effective than the model described above. Based on this belief, we attempted to provide the students in our course with varying perspectives by integrating very different instructional styles into the course. This teaching experience has also helped us better understand that we have different styles of learning, as well. In our team, the instructor who in the past relied heavily on providing lecture experiences, now much more comfortably integrates group work into course presentations. The other instructor, who tended to rely more heavily on group-work activities has become more comfortable supporting a lecture-oriented approach.

We attempted to model a collaborative process for all aspects of the course. Both instructors are present and actively involved during all class sessions. We jointly plan all classroom activities. All course content, objectives, materials, and processes are worked on together and a consensus is reached. When one of us is presenting material or leading a class activity, the other instructor is providing active support. Our intent is to model equal instructional leadership.

One of the major goals of this effort was to enable students to be reflective and to begin to change the way they view both learning and teaching. Many of the students in the course plan teaching as a career or at least a portion of their career. The course content included the presentation of theories which suggested that educators need to acknowledge varying student learning styles. These theories also suggest that educators need to provide learning experiences which will encourage critical thinking and collaboration. We believe that one key to success as students become employees is the ability to engage in successful collaboration.

In addition to being able to observe collaboration, the students also experienced collaborative activities during each of the twelve class sessions. The student process was very active and incorporated the work of both Howard Gardner and David Lazear. The students were exposed to and encouraged to experience learning through different modes. They were asked to fully engage in activities and projects designed to help understand the material of this course. Students were frequently assigned to work together in groups. The students' final examination required that they work together in groups of three or four students to demonstrate the application of learning theories to the other members of the class and to the instructors. They were required to use methods which showed their understanding of the course material, which recognized the need to appeal to various styles of learning, and to put into action the learning theories modeled by the instructional team. In addition, the final presentation needed to follow sound instructional practices/theories.

In order for the students to benefit from group work,

a considerable amount of time was devoted to teaching students appropriate group roles. We believe that teaching group roles and reflecting about the group process is critical for successful group activities. Group activities included engaging the students in specific tasks designed to encourage higher-order/critical thinking skills. Students were asked to discuss situations which were relevant to them. Students were frequently asked to be reflective about group work. That is, they were asked to analyze what worked and what didn't work and to consider whether or not they were being effective group members.

In addition to group work, students were asked to write papers either individually or in pairs. These papers were responses to self-generated, real-world learning scenarios, or cases, which the students analyzed by applying one of the learning theories to the case. Students turned in two copies of all written work. This allowed us to evaluate each student's implementation independently. This evaluation included an analysis of the problem and specific learning theory that was applied. The instructors then met together to review the individual student evaluations. Both evaluations were then shared with the students.

This experience provided challenges for both the instructors and the students. Students reported that interacting with two faculty members with very different styles was overwhelming at times. Students said that they could not figure out how to "please both instructors." We also found it difficult to "please the students and each other." Prior to the completion of this course, students did not appear to be ready to apply, evaluate, and integrate their learning experiences. The students initially told us that they came into the course expecting to be told what they needed to learn, to learn it, and to then demonstrate their knowledge in the traditional classroom modes.

At the completion of the course, formal student course evaluations were generally very positive. Many students have told us they had never experienced this type of course, that they had "never worked so hard or felt so frustrated," but that they had learned a great deal in our course. They also reported feeling better prepared to work in groups and to engage in complex problem-solving experiences.

This course has continued to cause some stir within the college community and especially with administrators and other faculty. The creative parts of the course challenge some of the deeply held beliefs that higher education should be focused on reading, listening, researching, and mastering content. Some individuals continue to look questioningly at group work, body/kinesthetic projects and presentations, drawing

activities, visualizations, listening to music, and creative project presentations which involve the application of complex psychological learning theories. We believe that taking risks and "shaking things up a bit" need to continue to occur. We believe that his course provided positive experiences for both the students and the instructors.

John B. Morganti, Ph.D., Beth A. Garigen, and
Sebastian LoGuidice, M.A.
State University College at Buffalo
Buffalo, New York 14222

A Computer-Assisted Simulated Case Study Application of the Revised (1992) APA Ethical Principles

* Presented at the 9th Annual Conference on Undergraduate Teaching of Psychology: Ideas and Innovations, Ellenville, NY, March 22-24, 1995

A substantial consensus exists among both the public and educators that ethics education should be included in curricula from grade school through post graduate training. However, controversy exists as how to inculcate basic ethical principles within our diverse society in ways that avoid the dangers associated with indoctrination into a particular moral or religious system (Hastings Center, 1980). This issue is an especially sensitive one in public education, including public higher education.

Psychology has, as do most professions, a systematized ethical code, the APA Ethical Principles and Code of Conduct (1981; 1990; 1992) that regulate professional practice and research. Teaching these principles can accomplish many of the goals of ethics education while avoiding most of the controversy described above because they do not owe their origin to a specific religious or moral system. They do, however, convey many broadly accepted ethical tenets (e.g. personal responsibility, competence) as well as ethical precepts specific to the profession (e.g. confidentiality). There are no available data, beyond limited information on textbook coverage (Perrotto and Culkin, 1989) on the extent to which professional and research ethics are covered in the typical undergraduate curriculum. Yet, the increasing calls in the literature for such coverage suggest that little beyond the regular, but usually superficial, coverage of research ethics in methodology courses is presently built into the typical undergraduate curriculum (cf. Matthews, 1991; Haemmerlie and Matthews, 1988; McGovern, 1988). Indeed, Fine and Ulrich (1988) present rather discouraging data on the extent to which graduate students are provided distinct courses in ethics in their masters or doctoral studies.

Matthews (1991) and others have discussed approaches and associated problems in teaching the principles. Matthews notes that a separate undergraduate course has the advantage of allowing one to cover all the Principles and cover them in depth but has the disadvantage of small class size associated with specialized topics courses , meaning that most majors receive little coverage of the Principles. The alternative of attempting to incorporate a discussion of the Principles and Code into existing courses is largely impossible because of the problem of introducing substantial new demands on already full content. An alternative solution would be to introduce the code into selected courses where it is especially relevant, such as research methods, tests and measurements, applied psychology. This practice has some merit but results in very selective coverage. Thus, the research methods course limits coverage to research ethics, tests and measurements to ethical practice in testing, etc.

McMinn (1988) has developed a computerized case study simulation of ethical dilemmas. He also provides a teaching manual that shows the instructor how to build new scenarios that illustrate ethical dilemmas not covered in the two scenarios on this disk. This computer exercise in an excellent assistive device in teaching the Principles. It can be used a single time in a course in which the teaching of the Principles is one of many topics and the focus is merely on familiarizing the student with the existence of the code and its basic structure/content. In a specialized course devoted to ethics in psychology, the computer case studies can be used repeatedly to help students master the details of the Ethics Code.

Unfortunately, this excellent teaching aid is organized around the 1981 version of the Principles which is now out of date. Thus, the authors have developed a computer-assisted simulation program which is designed to serve as an active learning device to advance student and faculty knowledge and application of the revised Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct (APA, 1992). It builds upon McMinn's (1988) earlier commercial program but goes beyond that program (McMinn, M.R., "Ethics Case Study Simulation") in that it: a) builds scenarios that highlight selected ethical principles different from the earlier program; b.) evaluates the simulated ethical decisions against the new code rather than the 1981 Principles; c.) uses a new program format that can also be used to develop new scenarios (as did McMinn,1988) but that allows more extensive scenario elements/information on each screen in the story and provides more detailed reasons for the program evaluations made of the ethicality of chosen responses to each ethical dilemma presented in the scenario.

The program presents users with a series of scenarios that are tied together to produce a short story. The first screen is common to all and sets up the basic story line and fundamental dilemma. It ends with a request to choose one of two alternative courses of action. Each subsequent screen builds on previous ones and confronts the user with additional ethical dilemmas/issues that result from their previous choice(s). For each case, there are four related scenario screens, a "case outcome" screen, and an evaluation screen that identifies the six ethical principles (APA, 1992) and assigns ratings of "good", "fair", or "poor" on each relevant principle. It also identifies relevant standards from the code and presents a rationale for the assigned rating. The system presents the user with one of sixteen different possible case outcomes and evaluations that result from the earlier binary choices and the subsequent branching which occurs.

The learner is provided an experience that: a.) illustrates a variety of realistic ethical dilemmas encountered in professional practice; b.) involves the user in working through these dilemmas by requiring choices and allowing them to see the intended or unintended effects of "real" choices; c.) serves as a starting point for didactic classroom learning that will increase knowledge of the APA Principles and Code (1992), recognition of their importance in professional practice and the difficulty of ethical decision-making.

The first author has used these computer-assisted case studies in a number of ways. The primary use has been in a specialized advanced course, Ethics in Psychology: Research and Practice. The computer exercises are used in the second week of the course to begin the process of confronting students with the realities of ethical decision making (students are given a copy of the Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct in the first class. Students use the case studies again late in the course and their responses are compared to their earlier performance printout to chart changes.

In other traditional content courses (e.g. Social Psychology, Personality, Environmental Psychology) taught by the first author the case studies are used as part of a single class session in which the Ethical Principles and Code are reviewed. Only the outline of the Principles is

presented. Students then run through the case studies and their outcome feedback data are discussed briefly. The goal is merely to make students aware of the existence and nature of the Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct.

Student reaction to the case study has been excellent. They are especially pleased with the opportunity to make their own choices in response to realistic scenarios and to see how one choice affects later situations and outcomes differently than does another alternative chosen at each critical point in the case.

Helping Students to Experience the Classroom: Interactive Techniques for the Personality Psychology Course

Dr. Randall E. Osborne

Indiana University East

Running Head: Interactive Techniques in the Classroom

Paper presented at the 9th Annual Conference on Undergraduate Teaching of Psychology: Ideas & Innovations, Ellenville, New York, March 1995.

Abstract

Teaching personality psychology can provide the faculty member with a variety of interesting opportunities and challenges. At a recent conference on assessment, a faculty member asked why students are so obsessed with relating personal and family experiences into their writing. The response from another faculty member was both shocking and disturbing. In response a colleague stated, "it's just another technique they try to use to get away with not doing the reading. If they can B.S. enough about what they know, they think you won't figure out what they don't know". Although this sentiment may be tempting at times when it seems that all of our efforts to get students involved with their coursework have failed, I find the pessimism both undeserved and disquieting. I have come to the philosophy that students will rise to the educational standards that we set for them but only when a path by which those standards can be achieved has been illuminated. What follows is a description of two "interactive" techniques that I use that encourage students to relate their own personal and life histories to the material. Rather than cringing when students try to relate the material to what they know best, then, I encourage them to process the material at their own level and, in so doing, give them a path by which their competency with the material can be demonstrated.

Many students enroll in psychology courses for the express purpose of figuring out their lives or the lives of a loved one. Although I do not advocate that such a purpose should be the guiding point by which our psychology courses are structured, I also do not believe that we should sweep such a point under the rug and pretend it doesn't exist. Taking the theoretical approach in the classroom is nothing new. Indeed, many faculty members feel that personality psychology should be taught as a theoretically based course. But theories, alone, do not portray personality psychology to the students. If they did, students would ask a lot fewer questions than they do about how this relates to people they know and/or the behaviors they have seen this person engage in. Rather than chastising students for such personal reflections, however, I advocate embracing this personal interest and turning it to the student's educational advantage.

Many educators advocate an "interactional" approach to the classroom trying to create teaching techniques that involve students in the classroom experience. But how "interactive" are these techniques? Interacting with someone or something does not just mean giving the student a more memorable way of learning the facts. It also does not mean creating a fun way of learning the same old things. True interaction in the classroom involves giving students the freedom to add their own twist to the material and allowing them to decide (to some degree, anyway) how that information will be used. But interactive techniques are not for the faint at heart. Nor are such techniques suggested for the faculty member who feels he/she must be in "control" of the classroom at all times. When students create the examples that allow them to understand the material, though, learning can be significantly enhanced and simple content errors can be better avoided.

To demonstrate how an interactive approach to the classroom that encourages students to think about themselves and others that they know works, let's consider the following issues:

1.) Getting students to understand the biased impressions individuals hold about each other.

2.) Helping students to understand the somewhat confusing defense mechanisms as outlined by Freud and others.

Method

Technique One

Implicit Personality Theories often dominate our thinking and influence not only our views of others but our views of ourselves (Schneider, 1973). What is often surprising for students, however, is the fact that others make assumptions about them as well. It is one thing to know that we hold particular views about our own selves and quite another to ponder the fact that others may have very specific beliefs about our selves as well. Aiding student understanding of the different assumptions that others may be making of them helps the student understand the importance of various social psychological concepts including "Social Theory" (Anderson & Sechler, 1986) as well. Such a theory is used by the individual to make assumptions about the manner in which certain environmental variables go together. These theories, then, can combine to dramatically influence the impressions individual hold about themselves and others.

To aid student comprehension of the sometimes important differences between their own self views and others' views of their self, I employ the Personality Collage. Students are instructed to collect magazine and

newspaper pictures, comics, headlines, advertisements, and such that they believe reflect who they are. These are then to be placed on a piece of poster board in the form of a collage. Students are given no other guidelines about format, placement of items, etc. Their final requirement is to put together a collage that visually demonstrates for others who they think they are.

Students are also instructed to ask someone who they think knows them quite well to construct a collage of their personality. In this fashion, the student will have two collages of their own self. One that is self created and one that is created by someone who they believe knows their self about as well as they do. The final step in the project is to require students to compare and contrast the two collages and write a paper that summarizes the collages and what they have learned from them. To facilitate student understanding, eight guiding questions are provided. Papers that are turned in with the collages then, are expected to include discussion of at least these eight questions.

Insert Table 1 About Here

Grading these collages could be considered to be a risky business. The risk, however, can be minimized if the faculty member remembers the purpose and nature of the assignment. Students are not only encouraged but required to reflect on their self. As such, the collages themselves should not be graded. Instead I have found it quite useful to give a certain number of points just for turning both collages in. Then, the remainder of the points (usually half or more) comes from grading the paper. The paper should be both reflective in terms of self and others but should also reflect the student's learning of the course material. As such, papers should be graded for

inclusion of theories, issues, and concepts relevant to the material as covered in the class.

Technique Two

Students have problems understanding some of the subtle differences between some of the defense mechanisms that are covered when discussing Freudian theory. Although I have tried dozens of techniques to simplify this material and, thereby, aid their understanding, none have worked better than the interactive technique I call "What's my defense mechanism?" Students are divided into small work groups (no more than three to five works best) and given handouts that briefly describe some of the major defense mechanisms (including; compensation, displacement, identification, projection, rationalization, reaction formation, repression, sublimation). As most teachers of personality psychology will attest, students confuse many of these. Most notably students have difficulty understanding the difference between Compensation and Sublimation or between Displacement and Projection.

In this interactive technique, students volunteer to serve as actors/actresses and are sent to another room to work on an act that will demonstrate a particular defense mechanism. While they are preparing their acts, students remaining in the room are asked to write a short thought paper discussing the concept of defense mechanisms and examples from their own life in which they have used some of them. After the acting students return, they play out the scenarios they have created. The task of the remaining student groups, then, is to discuss the scenario with other group members and write down which defense mechanism they feel each scenario attempted to depict. After the students have reached decisions about each scene, their

work is checked by the students who acted the scenarios out. This, of course, opens the scenes up for discussion in which students make many references to their personal experiences and how those experiences either helped them in their efforts to label the scene or hindered such efforts.

Discussion

It is important that the faculty member be willing to allow students the opportunity to learn from their own personal lives. Who do students know better than themselves? Cognitive psychologists certainly would agree that individuals process information and learn better when that information can be incorporated with what the individual already knows. Given the expanse of knowledge individuals hold about themselves and the loved ones in their lives, is it really any surprise that they would make efforts to integrate new information with schemas they have already formed about persons they know? Rather than demoralizing students for such activities and feeding the philosophy that such a technique is, inherently, an attempt by students to avoid the real work, I encourage students to use such personal reflection and interaction with the material profitably. At the same conference that sparked the comment about students using personal reflection because of laziness, I felt compelled to ask the faculty member who found such personal reflection repulsive why he found it so problematic. His response was as shocking as his original question.

"It makes it difficult for me to decipher exactly what they do and do not know."

"What knowledge is it that you want them to demonstrate?", I further inquired.

"I want them to show me that they know what I told them."

That last statement, I believe, gets to the real heart of the matter. Unless a faculty member wants a student to go beyond the material, an interactive technique is probably not a good idea. Students who try to relate material to their own lives and who are encouraged to interact with it will, invariably, ask questions that go beyond the simple factual and content-based information you have presented. As such, the faculty member must be open to allowing the discussion to become more expansive and take on broader issues that just spitting back a definition or repeating a sentence from the lecture.

Certainly the two examples presented here are just that - examples. Many different courses and concepts lend themselves well to an interactional classroom approach. Perhaps more than anything, however, using such techniques demonstrates a teaching philosophy to the student that can broaden his or her understanding of why you think the material is important. We all know that using the "do as I say and not as I do" parenting philosophy produces less than stellar results. It is not a far stretch from that to realizing that students will probably not respond well to an "you need to know it because I said so" teaching philosophy either. We know things we have experienced better than we know things we have only heard about. Why should knowledge from the classroom be any different? Engaging students in the classroom experience, then, is not only a welcome break from the traditional lecture format. It also can significantly enhance student understanding and retention of the material we have worked so hard to prepare. What better philosophy for the business of teaching than one from which everyone profits?

Table 1

Questions to Discuss as You Consider the Similarities and Differences Between the Two Collages

1.) What are some of the major themes about your "self" depicted in your collage? What are the major themes about your "self" depicted in the second collage?

2.) What are the major similarities between your version and your partner's version of your "self"?

3.) What are the major differences between your version and your partner's version of your "self"?

4.) How did these differences make you feel?

5.) What might you be able to do to eliminate some of these differences? Would you want to eliminate them? Why or why not?

6.) What have these differences taught you about yourself that you didn't already know?

7.) What have these differences taught you about your partner that you didn't already know?

8.) Describe any key concepts from the theorists, theories and concepts covered in this course that you think relate to either of the collages.

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Using Personality Scales as an Experiential Learning Activity

Dr. Patricia A. Oswald

Department of Psychology

Iona College

Abstract

This paper describes and evaluates the use of personality scales (e.g. Perspective Taking Subscale of the Interpersonal Reactivity Index [Davis, 1980]) as an experiential learning activity designed to engage students in an active learning process. I outline learning objectives, identify some specific personality scales suitable for classroom use, and discuss the applicability of this technique to a variety of courses and topical areas in psychology.

Using Personality Scales as an Experiential Learning Activity

Research on active versus passive learning suggests that learning is enhanced by an experiential classroom component (Wittrock, 1984). Students report being able to understand material better when experiential activities are used as a part of classroom instruction (Marshall, & Linden, 1994). Moreover, many faculty would agree that experiential activities stimulate discussion and enliven the classroom environment.

Using experiential teaching techniques also sends a valuable implicit message. According to Gray (1993), an implicit message "... includes attitudes about the subject under discussion, attitudes about the students, and expectations about what students will do ..." (p. 69). One implicit message in engaging students experientially is that students can direct their own learning. Experiential activities also can encourage students to attempt to relate what they learn to their own lives.

This paper describes and evaluates a type of experiential classroom activity that can help an instructor break free of an over reliance on the lecture/note giving habit. Specifically, I will address the use of several personality scales (e.g. the Perspective Taking Subscale of the Interpersonal Reactivity Index [Davis, 1980]) to engage students in learning about a variety of topical areas in social psychology.

I believe that using this teaching technique helps students better understand: (a) specific dispositional characteristics; (b) the situational factors that influence dispositional tendencies, (c) relevant, related research; and (d) how these dispositional and situational factors relate to "the real world" (e.g. the students' own lives). This technique allows the students to engage in self-evaluation and enables the instructor to present material in what students describe as "a more meaningful way."

Method

Participants

Thirty-nine women and 14 men enrolled in an undergraduate social psychology class volunteered to participate. These students represented a variety of ethnic and racial backgrounds; they ranged in age from 17 to 47 years, $\underline{M} = 23.23$, $\underline{S} = 6.48$.

Instruments and Procedures

Early in the semester, students completed an instrument comprised of (a) 7 demographic questions, (b) the 6-item Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965), (c) the 7-item Perspective Taking Subscale of the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (Davis, 1980), (d) the 25-item Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder, 1974), and (e) the 24-item Locus of Control Scale (Levenson, 1973). Completing these scales took about 25 minutes of class time (alternatively, students can be asked to complete the scales at home).

Students scored each of their own completed personality scales at the beginning of a discussion of the related social-psychological topic/research (this took about five minutes for each scale). Each scale used and some of the topics discussed in conjunction with its use are listed below.

1. **Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale:** self-esteem and jealousy (Salovey & Rodin, 1991), persuasion (Janis, 1954), failure of love relationships (Rusbult, Morrow, & Johnson, 1990), group identity (Tajfel, 1982).

2. **Davis' IRI Perspective Taking Scale:** perspective taking and empathy (Batson, 1991), attitudes about others (Mussen & Eisenberg-Berg, 1977), altruistic helping (Oswald, 1992).

3. **Snyder's Self-Monitoring Scale:** self-monitoring and career choice (Brown, White, & Gerstein, 1989), leadership (Ellis, 1988), friendship (Snyder & Simpson, 1984), politics

(Simonton, 1988).

4. **Levenson's Locus of Control Scale:** locus of control and obedience (Blass, 1991), prosocial behavior (Bierhoff, Klein, & Kramp, 1991), stress (Shek & Cheung, 1990), health (Quadrel & Lau, 1989).

In discussing each topic, I emphasized the relative role of dispositional and situational influences on human behavior. I encouraged students to evaluate their scores on each scale, particularly in relation to the specific research discussed.

Evaluation and Discussion

At the end of the semester, students completed a 6-item questionnaire evaluating the experiential personality scales component of the course. They responded to the attitude statements using a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). Mean responses to the items indicated very positive attitudes about completing the personality scales and using them as a springboard for lecture and discussion. Students responded that the activity was very interesting ($\underline{M}$ = 6.64, $\underline{S}$ = 0.51) and valuable ($\underline{M}$ = 6.09, $\underline{S}$ = 0.83). They reported that it helped them better understand the role of dispositional and situational factors in social behavior ($\underline{M}$ = 6.09, $\underline{S}$ = 0.83) and the related concepts and research presented in class ($\underline{M}$ = 6.27, $\underline{S}$ = 0.65). Moreover, they indicated that the activity enabled them to relate the material to their own lives ($\underline{M}$ = 6.10, $\underline{S}$ = 0.95) and that it should be used in future classes ($\underline{M}$ = 6.55, $\underline{S}$ = 0.52).

Students commented informally that they especially enjoyed the personality scales component of the course because (a) it provided them with the opportunity to evaluate themselves on the various dispositional characteristics, (b) it made the research more relevant and easier to remember because they could connect it to themselves, and (c) the related class discussions were

more interesting and fun than simply taking notes.

This activity (or a modification of it) is appropriate for a variety of psychology courses including general psychology, personality, social, tests and measurement, and educational psychology. For general psychology, I recommend using fewer scales. For the personality course, using additional scales is appropriate.

This experiential activity requires minimal effort and time on the part of the instructor to implement. It captures students' interest and helps them understand the concepts and research being presented. Moreover, it generates excellent class discussions--even the most reserved students participate. As an instructor, witnessing such enthusiasm is exciting and enjoyable.

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Author Note

Correspondence concerning this article or requests for reprints should be sent to Patricia A. Oswald, Ph.D., Department of Psychology, Iona College, New Rochelle, NY 10801.

Thinking Critically and Understanding Empathically: Techniques for Teaching Adolescent Development

Emily J. Johnson, Ph.D.
Sara M. Sullivan, Ph. D.

University of Wisconsin - La Crosse

Thinking Critically and Understanding Empathically:
Techniques for Teaching Adolescent Development

Many students who enroll in courses such as Human Development, Child Development, or Adolescent Development do so to fulfill requirements in a field where they will have occasion to interact in a professional manner with the "target" population. These students may not be interested in pursuing the scientific study of human development at various stages, but rather are interested in learning how to apply available information to work-related settings. Psychology majors, on the other hand, may be quite interested in a more scientific understanding of human development. Teaching psychology majors along with non-majors in service courses becomes a particular challenge. This paper provides a brief theoretical rational for and description of the techniques we have used when teaching the Adolescent Development course to fulfill the needs of both these groups.

After having taught Adolescent Development for several years, we have identified three primary objectives for our students enrolled in this course: (1) to encourage students to become active in their own learning processes; (2) to provide students with the skills that will enable them to become critical consumers of information regarding adolescents and their development; (3) to provide opportunities that will foster the development of an empathetic understanding of adolescents and their experiences. This last objective is particularly important in light of the negative valence that the word "adolescence" typically elicits (Takanishi, 1993) and the misunderstandings about this age group shared by a majority of Americans, including students enrolled in our courses. These objectives emphasize the need to incorporate multiple approaches to learning in the classroom and encourage the development of more complex cognitive skills in our students.

The development of or improvement in critical thinking skills has become a major focus on many college campuses. Although variously described and measured, critical thinking typically involves the "individual's ability to interpret, evaluate and make informed judgements about the adequacy of arguments, data, and conclusions" (Pascarella and Terenzini, 1991, p.118). The study of adolescence as a unique period of the life span is a relatively new science. As such, scientific theory and research as well as popular press information about adolescents has exploded over the past quarter century. As this body of knowledge has grown, earlier misconceptions of adolescence are being replaced with more accurate, yet more complex models about this period in the lifespan. However, earlier misconceptions and misunderstandings about these young people and this period of the life span continue to linger in the public mind. Therefore, the development of critical thinking skills are essential in order for students to become critical consumers of information about adolescence.

However, Clinchy (1989) argues that to focus only on separate, objective knowing (often described as critical thinking) to the exclusion of other forms of thinking and knowing is an injustice to our students. She discusses the importance of including both connected knowing and critical thinking approaches in college classrooms. "Connected knowers are not dispassionate unbiased observers. They deliberately bias themselves in favor of what they are

examining....The heart of connected knowing is imaginative attachment: trying to get behind the other person's eyes and 'look at it from that person's point of view'" (Clinchy, 1989, p. 18). It is particularly important for pre-service professional to have a non-judgmental and empathetic perspective toward their clients and/or students. Connected knowing fits within a broad body of newer research that implies the limitations of formal reasoning and detached logic based on the premises of Piagetian theory (King and Kitchener, 1994). Research on college student and adult cognitive development have identified alternative cognitive styles variously described as postformal reasoning, cognitive complexity, and reflective judgement (King and Kitchener, 1994; Pascarella and Terenzini, 1991).

In addition to the focus on the above styles of thinking and knowing, our courses are largely discussion based and adhere to an active learning philosophy. Typically 40-45 students enroll in each section of Adolescent Development. Although we as the instructors do include lecture time, much of each class session involves student discussion of issues, problems, questions, case studies, etc. in both large and small groups. Research evidence suggests that discussion based classes as opposed to lecture-based are more effective when the goal of instruction is affective in nature or the development of higher-order cognitive skills such as critical thinking (Pascarella and Terenzini, 1991). Below we describe several classroom activities that we use to promote critical thinking or connected knowing or both within an active learning environment. As much as possible, we provide the specific resources that we use in these activities.

Activities that promote critical thinking skills

Three Generations Assignment

One of the myths about adolescence is that they are more troubled and out-of-control than earlier generations (Levine, 1987). In this assignment students collect information from three generations of people who reflect on their adolescent experiences as a means of comparing adolescence past and present. From the "data" collected, students are asked to draw conclusions about the adolescent experience over time. Through this assignment students are also introduced to research methodology and are asked to determine the type of design, method and problems in this research project and the conclusions they can or cannot legitimately make.

> Each student will interviews three individuals, one from each age category listed below, using a questionnaire form I provide. Information you collect will include demographic, how the individual spends/t his/her time, the activities in which he/she participates(d) as an adolescent, the biggest problem or concern they face/faced and answers to a few open ended sentences such as "Teens today...." The three generations and the approximate age groupings include a "contemporary adolescent," ages 11-19; a "parent generation," ages 35-45; and a "grandparent generation" aged 60 to 75.
>
> During class time, your group will compile their data onto a summary sheet that I provide. We are interested in determining whether and how the adolescent experience of contemporary adolescents is similar to or quite different from the adolescent experience of earlier generations. We will also look for within generation variability as well as between generation

similarities. You will need to carefully study the patterns of activities, concerns, responses to the open-ended questions, and demographic information to be able to draw conclusions as to whether and/or how adolescence today may be different from past generations.

Critique of professionally produced video: KIDS OUT OF CONTROL

One of the goals of the Adolescent Development course is that students will become informed and critical consumers of information on adolescents/ce. During the early part of the semester, we spend time exploring the beliefs and myths about adolescents/ce. We also read several articles, both professional and popular press, that present various views on contemporary adolescents and students are asked to look for assumptions, evidence to support assumptions, theoretical underpinnings of assumptions etc. The following activity follows this beginning exploration into the "truth" about adolescents/ce.

You will be watching a video call "Kids Out of Control" that was aired on television a few years ago and that we now have purchased on video. After viewing this video, your small group should discuss the questions which follow. As you view this video, please keep in mind the readings you have completed and discussions we have had on topics such as myths about adolescence, the ecological model of development, media's portrayal of adolescents and adolescents from an historical and contemporary perspective. Also keep in mind the various theoretical views of adolescents, both past and present.

You are to be a critical reviewers of this video. Thinking about the topics/concepts above and the questions below should help you do a careful critique. As your group discusses the following questions, please take notes to use for your written assignment (see below).

1. What is the purpose of this program? (In responding to this question, consider who the intended audience may be, and what message(s)/information is(are) being provided to this audience.)
2. After viewing this video, what impressions about adolescents and/or adolescence are you left with?
3. In what ways is this program a misleading or unfair portrayal of adolescents/ce and/or unfair portrayal of adolescents' families?
   --What are some of the words, phrases, statements that are used that lead to misconceptions?
   --What evidence is provided to back up claims made in the program?
4. In what ways does this video fairly represent adolescents/ce and/or their families?
   --What evidence is provided that makes you believe these are valid claims or accurate information?
5. Whom might you recommend see this video? Why? OR would you recommend this video at all? Why?

Written assignment: Write a critique of this video using information gained from class discussions and your own careful reading of class material. This critique should take the form of a letter to the producers of the show or a letter to the editor of the local paper. In a critique you must back up your views/position with appropriate evidence or logical arguments. I am looking for knowledge about adolescence and your ability to make careful, selective and wise use of our class discussions and readings to date. Use your resources to convince your readers that your views are accurate (regardless of whether you agree or disagree with this program).

This assignment can also be done without the use of the video by selecting another popular press article that pertains to adolescents and that makes many assumptions about adolescents/ce. Students are asked to critique it first in group and then via a letter or editorial.

Adolescent Sexuality: What does it mean to be responsible?

The discussion of adolescent sexuality is inherent in a course on Adolescence since it is during adolescence that sexual maturation occurs accompanied by curiosity, fear, and misconceptions. As American society grapples with sex education and what directions to give to sexually mature young people, adolescents invariably get mixed messages. The following activities allow students the opportunity to begin to explore the complexities inherent in any discussion of adolescent sexuality and the difficulties involved in mandating only one course of action.

You have already read several articles discussing adolescent sexuality. We have also read and discussed the two case studies: one of the young woman who became pregnant and decided to marry the father and keep the baby and the other of the young woman who chose an abortion. Today you will see a film called "Teenage Father" about a young man who faces the consequences of his sexual activity. Use the questions listed below to guide your group's discussion following the film.

Group assignment: develop the basics of a sex education proposal that you feel will address the issues presented through the film and case studies and your readings. The sex education proposal must include (1) a statement as to why you feel a sex education program is necessary (consider using information from the film and case studies as examples), (2) the target audience, that is, the grade level for which the program is aimed; (3) the content--what should be taught; (4) the teachers--who should do the teaching and why; and (5) how you plan to include parents/guardians. You will present your proposal before a panel of judges (your peers) who will challenge you as to the whys and hows of your proposal. You need to be well prepared to respond to their questions and criticisms--making full use of all the reading and other resources available to you.

Questions to guide your discussion of the film:

1. What issues about adolescent sexuality, pregnancy, and parenthood are raised by the film?
2. Are the issues different for adolescent mothers in comparison with adolescent fathers? Explain.
3. Do you feel there really is a male "attitude" problem regarding sexuality and contraceptive use? Explain.
4. What does it mean to be responsible once you have fathered a baby? . . . become pregnant . . . become a father . . . become a mother?
5. Are there inequities in the system (in terms of rights, responsibilities, etc. of teen mothers vs. teen fathers vs. their parents)? How could these inequities be rectified? (Should they be?)
6. What short-term and long-term considerations must be given to becoming and taking on the parenting role as an adolescent? . . . must be given to giving a child up for adoption? How might these decisions affect one's sense of identity or autonomy, etc?

7. Would adolescent parents be more acceptable to society and have a greater chance of "making it" if they were married? Explain.
8. What is society's role or the community's role in helping adolescents deal with their sexuality? Once a young teen has become pregnant, what role should our society play, if any?

I have extended this assignment further through the use of a role play situation. Students in the class are asked to take on various roles from the film, the case studies or to represent the clergy, teachers, school board members or other community leaders. A school board presents the sex education proposal to the "community" and the students role play their concerns, objections, support, etc. This not only serves as an activity to foster critical thinking, but connected knowing as well.

Synthesis essay for demonstrating knowledge/understanding about adolescence/ts.

Since the students who take our courses come from a variety of majors, we try to make several applied assignments that could be used in a variety of settings. Many of our students will be working in community settings, either through schools, human service agencies or recreational programs where a working understanding of this age group and this period of the lifespan is essential for development of effective programs. By semester's end, students should be able to readily identify the major developmental issues and needs of adolescents and the role played by various contexts in influencing the adolescent experience. This assignment asks students to synthesize a great deal of information and apply it toward the development of a community program.

Final Essay Assignment: Reflect on the semester's work. What have you learned about adolescence/ts? Are you ready to apply your knowledge in the community? This is your first chance to demonstrate your integrated understanding of this period of the lifespan and of this age group. You are being interviewed for a job to work with adolescents and to design a community based program that would support and serve the developmental needs of adolescents and their families. You are being interviewed by a panel of community leaders including the superintendent of schools, the director of the community recreation program, a member of the clergy, a mental health professional and a youth counselor. You must convince this panel that you are indeed knowledgeable about adolescents and come prepared to both describe the type of program you would develop and provide the rational for it. Some of your panel members have a fair amount of knowledge about adolescents/ce and others have only been informed via the media, so they may have many misconceptions. Use the questions below to guide you as you convince the panel of your expertise and of the appropriateness of the program you propose. YOU ARE NOT TO ANSWER THESE QUESTIONS INDIVIDUALLY, BUT USE THEM TO GUIDE YOUR WRITING OF AN ESSAY IN PREPARATION FOR THE INTERVIEW. REMEMBER YOUR AUDIENCE. IT IS NOT ME.

1. Why is the adolescent period and the people we refer to as adolescents so misunderstood?
2. How might the developmental changes of adolescents contribute to these misconceptions?
3. How do the developmental issues of identity, autonomy, sexuality, etc. contribute to these misconceptions?
3. What are the two or three most important needs of adolescents?

4. What do adolescents need to insure healthy and relatively smooth passage into adulthood?
5. Why are both families (parents) and peers necessary for healthy adolescent development?
6. What are some of the major issues or concerns of adolescents?
7. Why are adolescents as a group such high risk-takers?
8. What role can or should our society and communities play in insuring the well-being of adolescents?

Remember, you are not only proving your expertise about adolescents by talking about them, your expertise should come through in the program you propose and the rational for that program.

Activities that promote connected knowing

Reflection on personal experiences in relation to class materials

This assignment is representative of those which encourages students to utilize class material as a catalyst for reflection on their individual experiences during adolescence. It is based on the assumption that the self awareness associated with remembering personal affective responses to adolescent phenomena encourages a more empathetic perspective towards current adolescents.

Reflections on puberty: This project focuses on individual experiences of puberty and psychosocial reactions to those experiences. In a short paper (3-4 pages, typed, double-spaced), please discuss your personal experiences as your body changed from that of a child to that of an adult, emphasizing your social and emotional responses to these experiences. The "applied views" boxes in your text (Dacey and Kenny, 1994) provide models for the types of issues that will be appropriate to include. The information found in the tables in chapter 3 might also stimulate some interesting thoughts /recollections/reflections. Your discussion should include ideas and concepts presented in the text as well as the packet material. In addition, as a conclusion, please speculate about how your own recollections might influence your future interactions with adolescents whose experiences are similar to yours.

During the class for which students have prepared personal reflections about puberty, they discuss their responses in their established discussion groups. The questions presented below provide the structure for the group interactions.

1. What physical changes and experiences associated with them were mentioned in the papers prepared by the members of your group? Which were most common? What is the "core" of pubertal changes for females? ...for males?
2. What kinds of emotional responses were discussed (e.g. pride, confusion , embarrassment)? How do these compare to the information presented in the text?
3. Were there early and late maturer in your group? What were their experiences related to these patterns of physical change? Were your experiences consistent with the data presented in the text? ...Why? ...Why not?
4. In what ways will your recollections affect your interactions with adolescents?

After the in-class discussion, students complete their reflections by individually responding to the following questions: What did I learn from the members of my group? How can I be sensitive to the concerns of pubescent adolescents?

Developing activities and experiences focused on family interaction, peer relations, religious and moral development or media influence would also provide opportunities to reflect on personal experience as a catalyst for self awareness and empathetic understanding of adolescents.

Eliciting personal affective responses

Formal operations assignment: In order to create an emotional reaction which mimics what an adolescent might experience in response to formal operational tasks presented in the middle and secondary school curriculum (and to foster in students a more thorough understanding of Piaget's conceptualization of formal operations), I administer a standard paper and pencil assessment of Piagetian formal operational thinking skills. After a quick review in which I ask the class as a whole to brainstorm everything they know about Piaget and his ideas about adolescents' thought processes, I distribute the "test". The rationale for asking students to complete these tasks is to have a basis for discussing the type of thinking skills that are characteristically "formal operational". Groups of students are instructed to begin with different items so that every item will be completed by someone.

After five to seven minutes, I ask students to interrupt their work and to spend three to four minutes reflecting in writing on their feelings as they attempted to solve the problems. Several emotional responses typically emerge from class discussion - " I feel like I did taking physics tests." "I feel like I ought to know the answer, but don't." "It makes me angry that you expect us to do this in this course on adolescent development." "I feel dumb?" "It reminds me of the SAT." " I don't care about this stuff at all so why should I try?" After this brief discussion, students begin to work on the test items in groups. The task for this group activity is to monitor their own thinking processes in order to generate a list of characteristics of their thought processes. This phase of the formal operational activity generally elicits characteristics such as abstract, hypothetical, mathematical, logical, and verbal. This list of characteristics is then used as the basis for examination of Piaget's conceptualization of adolescent and adult thinking and criticisms of these ideas.

Poetry: Short selections of poetry or other literary works can be used to elicit affective response which in turn generate a more empathetic understanding of the experiences of young people. For example, the following selection creates a sense of the embarrassment adolescents typically experience surrounding the almost universal experience of having to undress and shower for gym. This poem would be effective used in conjunction with a discussion of how to make schools more "adolescent friendly."

I love to play ball
But I hate gym.
Please don't ask me to
undress.
I'm skinny,
I'm fat,
I'm small,
I'm tall,
I have no hair,
I have too much hair,
I don't even need a bra.

Robert Ricken (1987, p. 7) .

Personal interaction with individuals whose experiences reflect course content

Panel presentations of individuals whose life experiences illustrate specific topic areas are a valuable approach for introducing students to basic information as well as powerful opportunities to understand others' experiences. This technique is especially suited to creating an awareness of the experiences and feelings of members of devalued or misunderstood segments of society whose experiences are not given extensive treatment in traditional curricular materials. Potential panel topics include lesbian, gay and bisexual teens, adolescents from "nonmainstream" cultural backgrounds, adolescent parents, women who experienced abusive relationships during adolescence, "troubled teens" (e.g., eating disorders, alcohol/drug abuse, delinquency), or youth with disabilities. In order to avoid unfocused and/or unstructured panel presentations, it is critical that both students and panel members are prepared. Typically students are responsible for reading and written assignments which focus on the panel topic, such as those samples presented below. Similarly, panel members are provided with copies of the assignment so they will be familiar with the student's background information.

Identity Formation for Lesbian, Gay and Bisexual Youth: Lesbian, gay, and bisexual adolescents have been described as "at risk and underserved." In order to foster among us an empathetic understanding of the experiences of homoaffective teens, we will have a panel of guests who are willing to discuss with us issues concerning their sexual orientation and identity formation. In preparation for this event, please complete the following assignment ....

Reading assignment: Case 8 or 12 from Adolescent Portraits (Garrod, et al., 1993)

1. As you read the case study of your choice, reflect on the following....
   A.) How are the experiences (e.g. in school, with peers, with families, with potential dating partners) of this individual similar to those of heterosexual youth?;
   B.) How are they different? (Savin-Williams reflections on Case 8 presents some analysis of these issues if you need some "thought- provokers".)
   C.) What factors put this individual "at risk"?
2. How would you respond if a teen with whom you interacted either personally or professionally "came out to you"? .. or indicates the she/he was struggling with issues related to sexual orientation?

Multicultural perspective on adolescent experiences: In order to gain a more thorough multicultural understanding of the experiences of adolescents, we will host a group of

individual from different racial/ethnic backgrounds in our class. In preparation for this opportunity, please read Case 4, 5 or 6 from Adolescent Portraits (Garrod et al., 1993). (Student generally select a case study, but occasionally I assign them.)

1. After reading your case study, write a brief response which includes:
   A.) What problem(s) did this person encounter as a minority?
   B.) What kinds of feelings did she/he have in response to being a member of a minority group
   C.) What actions or steps were taken to resolve the problem(s) they faced in order to form an identity.
   D.) How does this case relate to the information presented about identity formation among marginalized groups?

In addition to the requirements described in these sample assignments, for each panel presentation, students are also required to complete two additional tasks.

1. Preparation of a set of 5 or 6 questions based on reading material or personal interest which would be appropriate to ask panel members. Occasionally these are collected ahead of time so the instructor can prepare a set of lead questions based on students' interest. This is useful if there is a possibility that students might be uncomfortable asking their questions.

2. Preparation of a one-page written response to the panel presentation which includes a discussion of "the most important things I learned from this experience" and a response to the question - "How does it feel to be ...?"

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TEACHING RESOURCES

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Too Many Tangents or Too Many Zombies in the House?: On Using Disscussion-Teaching Methods More Effectively

Beth Cunin, Ph.D. and **Bert Cunin, Ph.D.**
Professor of Psychology
Rockland Community College
Suffern, New York

Adjunct, Psychology Department
Ramapo College of New Jersey
Mahwah, New Jersey

Since the days of Socrates, as well as the more recent historical times of John Dewey, educators have emphasized that learning is not a passive experience. Approaches that encourage the active participation of students can help make information and concepts more vivid, concrete and personally meaningful and therefore easier to learn and remember. Furthermore, educators also have emphasized that teaching is more than an "informational activity." It is also a "transformational activity" (Chalberg, 1992), a collaborative experience that is crucial for higher order learning such as problem-solving and critical thinking.

One active learning method that is frequently used by college instructors is discussion (Hughs, 1992). At its best, class discussion can be an extraordinary, even "magical" vehicle for learning and growth. But, some instructors are skeptical of discussion methods. Others, have had less than extraordinary success with its use in the classroom. At times, all of us may have failed in our attempts to stimulate class discussion. Perhaps, we were greeted with the disheartening "sounds" of "earth-shattering" silence. At other times, class discussion may seem like a colossal waste of time, precious lecture time lost (Glidden & Kurfiss, 1990) or squandered by tangential remarks, chaotic discussion (Gullette, 1992) or "meaningless debates" (Welty, 1989) that seem to be going nowhere.

The workshop was directed towards psychology instructors who might want to explore, experiment with and expand their effective use of discussion methods in the teaching of basic as well as advanced psychology courses.

Discussion Teaching Methods: Principles, Strategies and Techniques

Basic Principles:

1. Remember that the teaching - learning process is a collaborative experience.
2. Work to develop a fair and reasonable, caring and predictable class environment.
3. Integrate discussion, lecture (including mini-lectures) and role-playing methods.
4. Provide stimulus materials for meaningful, structured and relatively unstructured class discussions.
5. Remember to include unstructured, open-ended questions when leading group discussions. (Keep in mind that unstructured questions may frustrate many students' need for certainty and dependency on the teacher for "THE " answer.)
6. Discussion methods take time. (Time is the good teacher's enemy and ally.) Work to resolve the continuous tension or conflict between the time available, the material that needs to be "covered" and the type of student learning that should take place - factual, higher order, affective, etc.)
7. Judiciously use deepening procedures (Active listening, silence, clarification, reflection, interpretation).
8. Work to prevent group interactions from becoming destructive. (Become sensitive to different student personality types {healthy and helpful , reticent or shy, destructive e.g. hostile, monopolistic, highly critical}.)
9. Use follow-up techniques (Remember students' key words and phrases, going back to them within the same class meeting, among students and over a series of several meetings.
10. Remember that each class is different (Each has its own strengths, weakness and dynamics.).

Guidelines Towards Developing Some Basic Do's and Don'ts

Do's

- Work on managing and maintaining effective classroom learning and discipline
- Work on developing good communication skills
- Allow yourself to smile (a lot)
- Allow yourself humor (without traces of sarcasm or hostility)
- Self- monitor (intellectual and emotional honesty with deep introspection)
- Maintain a classroom atmosphere that includes a striving for truth while retaining a sensitivity for human defenses
- Control and limit premature disclosure (know when to reveal and when to conceal)
- Contain students' negative and angry or oppositional statements
- Realize and recognize the vast difference between random oral questioning and meaningful class discussion. Use discussion to break up lecture or use mini-lectures to break up discussion (Integrate lecture, discussion and role playing)

Don'ts

- Act impulsively
- Allow yourself to get pulled into the tyranny of the moment
- Use sarcasm, ridicule, inappropriate teasing

- Always and immediately squelch conflict (Sometimes conflict and chaos, confusion and ambiguity, if not prematurely terminated, can and does lead to conflict resolution, healthy dialogue and insight)
- Permit "side-tracking" or "runaway class discussion" (tangents) unless you assess that they are not just a waste of time but are meaningful in the short or long term
- Avoid or fear failure or imperfection as they are normal (Remember, "success is not final and failure is not fatal".)

REVEALING THEIR RICHES

A paper presented to
the 9th Annual Conference on Undergraduate
Teaching of Psychology:
Ideas and Innovations
Ellenville, New York

Presented by:
Mary Ann Lohmueller, M.A.
Behavioral Sciences Department
Raymond Walters College
9555 Plainfield Road
Cincinnati, Ohio 45236
(513) 745-5655

March 23, 1995

REVEALING THEIR RICHES

The purpose of this paper is to share an innovative approach to teaching undergraduate psychology in a self-directed group discussion format which gets learners actively involved in their own education. The approach enhances the learner's critical thinking skills and communication skills while exploring the fundamental aspects of psychology. Both learners and faculty become challenged to take on unique roles.

"People are more like plants to be nurtured
rather than empty vessels to be filled
with (someone else's) surplus wisdom".

- Harold Kushner
"When All You Ever Wanted
Isn't Enough"

"Current education suppresses self-esteem
by treating students as if they were empty vessels...."

- Gloria Steinem
"Revolution From Within"

BACKGROUND

Philosophical underpinnings from which this approach was developed are three-fold. First, the literature on adult learning theory reveals that adults learn best when actively involved in their own learning. Second, Carl Rogers' client-centered therapy holds that individuals have within themselves the capacity to assume responsibility for their behavior and mental health when provided with a supportive, caring social climate. In the classroom this climate is called an "active learning environment". Third, the movement in organizations toward employee involvement holds that employees must actively participate in their own jobs to achieve satisfaction, high performance and a level of commitment.

"Learning Theory"

Learning theory has long ago told us that students learn best when they are actively involved in their own learning. Based on his own and others' research Astin (1985) proposes the "theory of student involvement" stating involvement is the key to learning. Here, student involvement "refers to the amount of physical and psychological energy that the student devotes to the academic experience" (pp.151). Pascarella & Terenzini (1991) conducted an extensive literature review on the subject and concluded "the greater the student's involvement or engagement in academic work ...the greater his or her level of knowledge acquisition and general cognitive development" (pp.616). A recent report from the Harvard school of education (Light, 1992) studying data from 25 institutions found involvement is the key to effective education.

"Active learning environment"

Assume for a moment most individuals drive toward personal growth and development if provided an environment that is both supportive and challenging. Assume also that most people are capable of making a greater contribution in class than they do now. Believing these two assumptions how would a class be structured? The implications are straight forward. To create an active learning environment in the classroom -- ask, listen, support, challenge, encourage risk taking, permit failure, remove obstacles, give autonomy, give responsibility, set high standards and reward success. This is what creates a better learning environment.

According to Chickering and Gamson (1987) "Learning is not a spectator sport. Students .... must talk about what they are learning, write about it, relate it to past experiences, and apply it to their daily lives. They must make what they learn part of themselves."

"Employee Involvement"

All around the world we are seeing significant shifts in worldview. People are realizing they are essentially free to create their lives as they want to. This is a fundamental shift in orientation from the more traditional belief that people are powerless and helpless and therefore, must cope with the stress and demands of life. Look toward the dramatic changes sweeping Eastern Europe, the former Soviet Union, and Latin America as people are exercising their human right to participate in shaping their own future. Organizations have been mirroring this change for some time now. Authoritarian, high control structures are giving way to more participative structures which people help shape and become committed to the work they do. In organizations creating high employee commitment requires the redesigning of traditional

structures and systems as well as redefining the role and functions of leadership. The term self-directed is a term borrowed from this journey in organizations toward employee involvement. In the context of this paper it translates to a redesigned classroom structure where a learner is actively involved in shaping her own education.

Today, as the world view changes, people are beginning to realize that individually and collectively they are empowered to create and shape their own destiny in governments, in organizations and why not in colleges? Recently across college campuses there is a resurgence of emphasis on teaching. Joseph Steger, president of The University of Cincinnati now refers to UC not as "a major research university", as it has been regarded in the past, but as "a major learning and research university". We need to redesign the college classroom to focus on creating an active learning environment making the climate conducive for 'higher learning'. What this kind of environment does is enable students a greater opportunity to have high performance and a high commitment to their own learning.

Arising from this theoretical groundwork are four assumptions from which this self-directed approach was developed: (1) learners thrive within well-defined boundaries; (2) learners should be responsible for their own learning; (3) most people move toward personal growth and development if provided an environment that is both supportive and challenging; (4) people learn from each other.

FORMAT

This format demands learners are active, prepared and involved in every class session while doing 75% of the talking. In addition, a dominant course goal is to enhance their critical thinking skills and communication skills under a few very well-defined and strictly adhered to parameters. The self-directed approach empowers learners to "open-up" to reveal what they already know, how they understand the new information, and who they are. That openness makes for a more receptive learner.

The approach was designed to create well-defined parameters permitting and encouraging learners to be active, prepared and involved in each class. The method consists of four component parts, each of which is described to learners in detail on the first day of class. The approach demands and encourages learners to be active, prepared and involved in each class session by establishing four course requirements. Each learner will:

(1) participate in group discussions and activities;
(2) write chapter discussion worksheets;
(3) lead one group discussion and one experiential activity;
(4) participate in a "final" group discussion exam.

For the first component each learner is required to participate effectively in group discussions and activities at every class meeting. Clear criteria for what denotes effective participation are established upfront. Effective participation means contributing to the group's thinking with relevant and accurate responses, avoiding counterproductive actions and applying the text's theoretical framework to real life experiences (see appendix A). During the first class session basic principles for effective group discussions are reviewed (see appendix B).

Participation in group discussions is required and graded at every class session. Each learner is required to provide input to the questions asked by group leaders. At the conclusion of each session each learner receives participation points from the faculty on a 0 to 3 scale based on their ability to meet the established criteria. This feedback is given immediately in writing to each learner.

For the second component each learner is required to complete a "discussion worksheet" for every chapter covered in the course text. Discussion worksheets are written responses to a series of questions covering critical content areas of the text. Worksheet questions are given to each learner at the start of the term (see appendix C). This worksheet is the critical ingredient to prepare learners for group discussions by forcing them to study the course material. Each discussion worksheet consists of responses to anywhere from four to twelve pre-assigned questions on the reading material.

A complete discussion worksheet meets these three criteria: (1) answers all questions completely; (2) writes in complete sentences and paragraphs using correct grammar; and (3) is turned in at the completion of the discussion. Points are earned for each worksheet on a 0 to 3 scale. See appendix D for an example of a worksheet earning a three.

For the third component learners are placed in a group with two, three or four classmates who together lead the rest of the class in a group discussion for a designated class period. Effective group leading requires the learners to explore the text's major ideas in a clear and accurate way by asking thoughtful questions to seek input from others. It also requires a discussion leader to solicit examples of how these concepts apply to everyday life, and lead the group in a relevant and innovative experiential activity. Each group leader receives a letter grade based on the group's ability to meet these criteria. The grade is earned as a team to encourage the development of their ability to work collaboratively, a life skill needed when entering any organization today. According to Chickering and Gamson (1987) one of the seven principles for good practice in undergraduate education is that "good practice encourages cooperation among students". They state "learning is

enhanced when it is more like a team effort than a solo race. Good learning, like good work is collaborative and social, not competitive and isolated."

At the conclusion of each session learners complete a two-part feedback form (see appendix E). The top half of the form asks learners to evaluate the group leaders on their ability to meet the established criteria. The bottom half asks each learner to evaluate their own participation in the discussion. While each learner is filling out this form the faculty writes on the bottom half the points earned for their participation on that day, the immediate feedback is essential to improve their discussion skills. The forms are collected and cut in half so the group leaders can have the top half which provides immediate feedback on their performance. The faculty can choose to either give the group leaders a grade then or return it with comments at the next class session. Experience has shown both ways to be effective depending on faculty preference.

Part of leading the discussion requires the group leaders to take the class through a relevant and innovative experiential activity. There are many resources for these activities, experience has shown that students become very creative when left to their own devices and the temptation to suggest an activity is resisted. Although, examples of activities from previous classes mentioned during the first class meeting helps learners better understand what works. Each learner is asked to fully experience the activity by following all directions. After the experience is completed, the experience is "processed" by the group. (This author has toyed with the idea of having student's enter their experiences in a required personal journal).

A "final" group discussion occurs at the end of the term serving as the final exam. Each learner is assigned a letter grade based on their ability to contribute to the group's thinking with relevant and accurate responses, avoiding counterproductive actions and applying the theoretical framework presented. By this time they have practiced and received feedback on their ability to participate so, they should know what is expected.

"Faculty role"

Faculty and students serve in unique roles when engaging in this format. Learners are consistently active, prepared and involved. They are the ones doing most of the talking. Faculty are also active, prepared and involved, but in a different way. Faculty do not answer most of the questions during the course of the discussion. Most faculty find themselves challenged by this role because their "content" comments are kept <u>brief</u>.

The faculty's critical role is to create and maintain an "active learning environment" by managing the "process". In this self-directed teaching method that term becomes operationalized when faculty engage in these four functions: (1) explain and adhere to clearly defined boundaries (the most critical function); (2) draw out accurate information from learners by holding back, asking a focused question, listening and then adding brief comments when necessary; (3) offer explanations when the group discussion is inaccurate (4) give feedback to learners on their critical thinking and communication skills when the opportunity presents itself.

When faculty explain and adhere to clearly defined boundaries students are held accountable and this creates and keep a safe learning environment. Rapport and trust are built. Learners realize they are valued. This is what makes an "active learning environment" work.

RESULTS

Since the nature of this paper is non-empirical, any results reported here are subjected to the many pitfalls that come from making informal observations. At this time only anecdotal evidence is available to indicate what impact this approach may have. That anecdotal support comes from two years of oral and written comments from learners as well as faculty who have experienced this format during the introduction to psychology series at a community college in a large metropolitan area.

"Learners comments"

Learners were asked to compare this approach to the traditional lecture and note-taking approach. They consistently report it as being the "best ever experienced", "excellent", "enlightening", and "superior to lectures and memorizing". When asked to describe their own learning, students consistently indicate two points of interest: (1) they actually understood, not memorized, more of the text than usual; and (2) they retained more knowledge in this class than most.

When learners were asked about the skills they developed they consistently responded that their communication skills as well as their confidence level greatly improved. When asked about their ability to think critically, most stated they were unable to judge if there was any improvement.

When learners were asked how they felt about participating in this kind of class, responses consistently included "scared at first", "excited", "enjoyable", and "the class time flies". When asked for any additional comments students often indicate a great deal of satisfaction coming from the amount of interaction with other learners both in and out of class time.

It must be mentioned that obviously these comments are from students who chose not to drop out of the course thus, are a self-selected sample and biased in that way. It would be interesting to see a department with all classes operating under this format so students could not drop out of an active involvement course to sign up for a passive lecture/note-taking course.

"Faculty comments"

Some represented comments from various faculty include: "it offers a lot of advantages"; "it's an excellent format"; "it enhances students oral communication skills"; "they were actually having fun learning"; "it's hard to believe but, everybody was participating".

One striking comment from a very experience and very traditional teaching professor was, "During the last week of class, I walked out of my class of only a handful of students feeling the students were bored and anxious to leave. Then I walked into (professor's name) class and witnessed the most amazing sight. During the last week of classes there was a full class of students involved and obviously excited to be in class making contributions and engaged in the process, so I stayed. After class ended they didn't want to leave. I said to myself, there's something here and I want to get it."

Certainly there is much skepticism as well. Most of this has come in the form of some very practical questions such as: "are the grades inflated?"; "can students add this class on the second week of the term?"; "teachers get paid to share their knowledge and in this format they don't appear to be doing much of anything"; "they are having fun and involved, are they really learning anything?"; "what about a student who has english as their second language, can they have the same opportunity to learn?".

DISCUSSION

The limitations of this format will be considered by looking at some practical considerations that must be taken into account before choosing this method of instruction.

(1) <u>Attrition</u> - Some learners will drop out after hearing the participation requirements. Two popular explanations about why this occurs are first, introverts will want to leave this uncomfortable situation because they are required to participate, second, it requires learners take an "active" role and many students are very used to being passive in the classroom. Regardless attrition is a reality unless all classes are taught with an "active learning" format.

(2) Class size - A small class size is ideal to achieve full benefits. Classes of 6-12 become a breeding ground for in-depth discussions. A class size of 13-25 is very manageable. This format has been worked with up to about 40 but, many of the participation benefits are lost. Obviously, this format will not work with large class sizes.

(3) Class length - This approach has been successful with class meetings of 50 minutes, and is ideal with longer class sessions such as 90 to 120 minutes. Even with longer class times students have often commented they would like more time to pursue content issues.

(4) Preparation - Much faculty preparation is required prior to the first term. Setting clear boundaries and paving the path that is suitable to one's particular needs is time consuming. Faculty knowledge and experience with group dynamics is extremely helpful.

(5) Inflated grades - Because learners are more involved, more committed, & interact more with faculty, grades are higher. This author attributes a significant amount of that to one unique characteristic of this method - learners are given an extraordinary amount of timely feedback about their performance by peers as well as faculty around several very clearly stated criteria.

(6) Does 'learning' occur? - If these students were all to take a multiple choice exam this author guesses they would probably score lower than someone in a traditional class. Why? Simple they did not study to take an exam. Students responding to the question "how would you preform on a traditional multiple choice exam" stated they would not perform well on dates, and names but, firmly believe they have 'learned' more material that they will retain for a longer period of time. As one student put it, "I cram for the exam, score well, then forget most everything. In this class, I really understand much of the theory because I have either participated in a related experiential activity or related it to a real life experience or explored it with others through an in-depth discussion."

(7) The Faculty member doesn't appear to be 'teaching - The teacher looks passive but is very active in the creation and perpetuation of the active learning environment. Who is teaching? The students or the faculty member? It looks like the learners are teaching each other because they are within specific parameters. What occurs in this social climate is that peer pressure kicks in to work for the faculty in a positive way. The amount of effort everyone puts in is highly visible and if someone fails to work hard it negatively effects everyone else so, pressure subtly takes over to ultimately enhance everyone's performance and motivation.

CONCLUSION

This anecdotal support yields a number of optimistic predictions. For example, a self-directed discussion format should be more able than a traditional approach to produce students with better communication skills. Furthermore, they should be better able to think critically, and should retain more of the fundamental theories of psychology. In addition, this approach should teach them the "life skill" of working collaboratively in a group. Of course, even if these predictions are upheld the format is only appropriate for those environments willing to work within the limitations discussed.

At this time support for this method needs to be tested empirically. A version of this format will be studied beginning the fall of this year by the author and colleagues at this same community college where this method was piloted.

Learners need to become skilled in how to think, make judgments, analyze and communicate, not regurgitate or please. The author encourages discussion, refinement and study of this method. The development of more ways to reveal the many riches learners bring to our classrooms is an investment well worth the effort.

"The greatest good we can do for others
is not to share our riches,
but to reveal theirs"
-author unknown.

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A P P E N D I X A

Syllabus

Raymond Walters College
Introduction to Psychology 102
3 credit hours
prerequisite: Intro to Psych 101

Instructor: Mary Ann Lohmueller
Office: Room 320
Phone: 745-5655/745-8312
Office Hours: After class & by appointment

Course Description:

This is the second of a three quarter course covering fundamental aspects of psychology as applied to everyday life. We will cover chapters through of our required text. This is an introduction to the study of human behavior. Topics include the history and methodology of psychology, human growth and development, and principles of learning.

Text Coon, Dennis. Introduction to Psychology, Exploration and Application. West Publishing Company, Sixth Edition (Required). Study guide is optional

Class Schedule

Week	Topics	Date	Assignments:	(Due by/on date):
1	Overview	March 30		
2	Cognition & Creativity	April 6	Worksheet 10	Activity
3	Motivation	April 13	Worksheet 11	Activity
4	Emotion	April 20	Worksheet 12, Group Leaders 12,	Activity
5	Stress & Coping	April 27	Worksheet 13 " 13,	Activity
6	Child Development	May 4	Worksheet 14 " 14,	Activity
7	Life-Span	May 11	Worksheet 15 " 15,	Activity
8	Intelligence	May 18	Worksheet 18 " 18,	Activity
9	Social Psych I	May 25	Worksheet 23 " 23,	Activity
10	Social Psych II	June 1	Worksheet 24 " 24,	Activity
11	Exam	June 8		

Course Goals

By the end of the course, learners will demonstrate the ability to think critically and analytically about psychological theories. Learners will demonstrate an understanding of learning principles, history, certain aspects of human growth & development. Abilities will be demonstrated in oral and written forms. Analysis of the application of the psychological areas studied in this course will include these activities:

1. Participate effectively in group discussions:
   Contribute to the group's thinking; avoid counterproductive actions; apply the theoretical framework to real life experiences; critique & analyze theoretical frameworks presented.

2. Lead an effective group discussion on one chapter:
   Present theoretical ideas in the text in a clear way; present examples of how these concepts apply to our everyday life; ask questions to seek input from others.

3. Complete a final exam

4. Participate fully in pre/in class activities:
Follow directions, experience the activity, write an analysis.

5. Write in paragraph form a discussion worksheet for each chapter.

Course Approach:

Learners will be asked to think critically and analytically as well as express their thoughts orally & in written form.. Learners will be asked to think from a viewpoint of observing and analyzing human behavior.

In brief, this course enhances communication skills and critical thinking skills while exploring fundamental aspects of applied psychology.

Grading

Course grades are based on 5 components:

Letter Grade
Exam (25%)
Leading group discussion (25%)

Points Accumulated
Pre-class or in-class Activities (10%)
Group discussion participation (20%)
Discussion Worksheet (20%)

Specifically:

1. The exam will be assigned a letter grade between A+ and F based on its ability to answer the questions.

2. Leading group discussion will be assigned a letter grade between A+ and F based on these criteria:
   Were the text's major ideas presented in a clear and accurate way?
   Were original examples offered to support the material?
   Was there discussion about how these concepts apply to everyday life?
   Were questions asked to seek input from others?
   Did the group members work well together?

3. Learners will participate in 9 in-class or pre-class activities. Each activity will be worth a maximum 3 points. An honest, effort earns full points. An honest effort meets these criteria:
   follows all directions
   experiences the activity without diversion
   writes a brief analysis
   Points are earned throughout the quarter and grades are assigned as follows:
      24 - 27 pts. = A
      20 - 23 pts. = B
      16 - 19 pts. = C
      12 - 15 pts. = D

4. Learners will participate effectively in a large group discussion. Each discussion will be worth a maximum 3 points. Effective participation meets these criteria:
   Contributes to group's thinking
   Avoids counterproductive actions
   Applies theoretical framework to real life experiences
   Critiques and Analyzes the theoretical frameworks presented.
   Points are earned throughout the quarter and grades are assigned as cited above (see #3)

5. Learners will write a complete discussion worksheet for each chapter. Every chapter worksheet well be worth a maximum 3 points. A complete discussion worksheet meets these criteria:
   Answers all question or statements.
   Writes full details from the text.
   Writes in complete sentences
   Turns the worksheet in on time (at the completion of the discussion).
   No worksheets will be accepted after the conclusion of class.
   Points are earned throughout the quarter and grades are assigned as cited above (see #3)

POLICY STATEMENTS

ATTENDANCE:

Attendance in class is mandatory in order to successfully complete the course. Because this class only meets once a week and the nature of the assignments is interdependent, make-up work is impossible. If you miss class when you are scheduled to Group Lead you receive Ø but everyone else still gets their opportunity to earn 3 points for participation because I will assume the role as Group Leader. You must be in class to complete the activities. Assignments will only be accepted when accompanied with a valid written medical note. For scheduled absences worksheets must be turned in prior to their due date.

ACADEMIC HONESTY

It is the policy of the Raymond Walters College that students exhibit academic honesty and respect ethical standards in carrying out their academic assignments. Unacceptable are using unauthorized materials during test, permitting one's work to be used by other students, submitting an assignment purporting to be a student's own work. The suspected work will be evaluated at zero and the student will need to meet with the Instructor and the Dean to defend his/her actions.

WITHDRAW:

During the autumn, winter, and spring quarters, a student may withdraw from courses by Saturday of the sixth week of classes with no penalty and will receive a grade of W. From the sixth week through the 58th day of the quarter, (see Schedule of Classes for date) a student may withdraw with a grade of W or F to be assigned at the discretion of the professor. After the 58th day of the quarter, no withdrawal will be approved except for reasons beyond the control of the student, such as sickness, accident, etc. During the summer session, the withdrawal for the various terms is proportionately shorter. See the Schedule of Classes for specific dates. The Associate Dean of Instruction is the judge of exceptions to the withdrawal policy.

APPENDIX B

A GUIDE TO GROUP DISCUSSION

WHAT IS THE GOAL DISCUSSION GROUPS?

A major aspect of this course is for you to learn more about conducting effective discussions. The learning goals, then, are:

-to increase skills of analytical reading
-to increase skills of effectively contributing to a successful group discussion

WHAT ARE THE CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD DISCUSSION GROUP?

In a successful discussion, the group helps each individual to expand, deeper, and challenge his/her individual understanding of the material. It's a specific kind of group interaction with its own ground rules and ways of interacting. It is not a debate. The purpose of a debate is to convince other people of the rightness of your own positions. A group discussion is not a bull session, either. A bull session is a friendly contest in which one person tells a story and another person seeks to top it with still another.

WHAT HAPPENS IN A DISCUSSION GROUP?

- Discussion begins with someone's observation or question. It should be a question that opens up the material in some provoking or interesting way. Express what you do not understand or what you find intriguing. Statements often begin "I noticed that..." or "I was intrigued by..." or "I didn't understand why..."

- If the observation is rich in possibilities, group members stay with it for a number of contributions. It is not the goal to have everyone adhere to one "right" way of looking at the text, but to have everyone expand and check his/her insights by group interaction and by grounding discussion in the text. It is expected that people will refer specifically to the text to support their points.

- In response to one member's contribution, the next person often briefly restates what the last person said and then may:

  Ask for clarification: "What did you mean by...?
  Ask for further support: "Where did you find evidence for that?
  Suggest further evidence to support the position "Yes, and that's also supported by..."
  Give examples to support and extend the position "An example I can think of is..."
  Add further related ideas: "Furthermore,..."
  Raise complications or disagreements: "The problem with that is..."
  Note contrasts and similarities: "Yes, and it's similar

to..."
Apply a statement to a new situation: " What if we took that same analysis and applied it too..."
Etc.

By staying with a topic, group members push beyond the superficial and obvious.

- When the topic has been explored, the Group Leader offers another observation or question, and the process repeats.

WHAT ARE POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE ACTIONS PEOPLE CAN PERFORM IN A GROUP?

In every successful discussion group, participants need to share in certain actions that help the group do its work.

Positive Actions:

___ Gatekeeping (encouraging someone else to speak or helping to keep order when several speak at once)

___ Timekeeping (warning other members when time is nearly up; helping to move the group to the next task)

___ Sponsoring and encouraging (complimenting someone on a good contribution, making helpful explanations, encouraging nonparticipants)

___ Building (building usefully on someone else's contribution by adding more evidence and examples, pushing the idea further, comparing and contrasting to other aspects, etc.)

___ Challenging (disagreeing, pointing up problems in a person's interpretation, insisting on clear definitions, holding the group to high standards of evidence and support)

___ Listening (restating another person's point and building on it; signs of listening, such as leaning forward, looking at the speaker, saying "um hm," etc.)

___ Group tension relieving (jokes or diverting remarks that relieve tension, yet not joking around so much as to interfere with the group's work)

Negative Actions

___ Sidetracking to irrelevant topics
___ Changing to a new topic before the group has fully explored the present topic
___ Interrupting others
___ Monopolizing discussion

___ Putting down another person rather than courteously but firmly disagreeing with his/her point of view
___ Apologizing
___ Withdrawing
___ Prematurely passing judgment on someone's idea rather than trying to explore its possibilities
___ Failing to listen

HOW CAN I PREPARE FOR A GROUP DISCUSSION?

Successful group discussions don't just happen. They are the product of careful preparation and committed action on the part of each person in the group. When every person is well prepared, the discussion will flourish. To help you prepare for discussions you will be asked to write a discussion worksheet BEFORE each class.

APPENDIX C

DISCUSSION WORKSHEET

Chapter 10 Cognition and Creativity

What is cognition?
How are animals intelligent?
Describe the rare form of imagery called Synesthesia.
What is concept formation and what are the types of concepts?
Discuss the structure of language.
Discuss the various approaches to problem solving.
What are two major styles of thinking?
What are the stages of creative thought?
Describe the creative personality.
What is intuitive thought?

Chapter 11 Motivation

Describe the model of motivation in detail (including all the basic concepts).
What are the two types of motives? Give an example of each one (not given in the text).
What's involved in the process of hunger and eating?
Discuss in detail the Arousal Theory.
What are body rhythms and how do they function?
Discuss the need for achievement and power.
Discuss Maslow's hierarchy of needs.
Discuss Intrinsic and Extrinsic motivation.

Chapter 12 Emotion

What are the elements of emotion?
How does our fight or flight mechanism work?
How do lie detectors relate to emotion?
How do emotions develop and how are they expressed?
Describe all the theories of Emotion.
Give an example of each Psychological Defense Mechanism.
Discuss learned helplessness.
What is Hope?

Chapter 13 Health, Stress, and Coping

What is stress, strain, stressors?
Describe frustration.
Describe conflict and types.
What are type A and type B behaviors?
What is the General Adaptation Syndrome?
What behaviors promote health?

Chapter 14 Child Development

Describe characteristics of newborn babies.
Describe the maturation process.
Discuss the nature-vs-nurture debate and reach a conclusion.
What influences are there on a prenatal?
Describe maternal and paternal influences.
What is imprinting and attachment?
Discuss language development in children.
Discuss Piaget's Theory of Cognitive development.
Discuss Moral development in humans.
Describe deprived and enriched environments.

Chapter 15 From Birth to Death: Life-Span

Detail Erikson's stages of life.
Describe an effective parenting style.
Describe normal childhood problems.
Contrast adolescence and puberty.
Describe adult development.
Discuss the course of aging.
Compare & contrast the 3 developmental models (page 431).

Chapter 18 Intelligence

Define intelligence.
How do we test for intelligence?
What is IQ?
What accounts for variances in intelligence?
What does it take for an intelligence test to have value?
In what way(s) can intelligence tests do harm? good?
Discuss sources of mental retardation.
What heredity and environmental factors influence intelligence positively.

Chapter 23 Social Psychology I

How does role and status impact living?
What are norms and how are they formed?
Describe attribution theory, social somparison theory and group think.
Discuss people's need for affiliation.
What attracts people to each other?
Apply the social exchange theory to your life.
What is the Asch Experiment and why was it performed?
How do groups affect our behavior?
Discuss Milgram's Obedience studies.

Chapter 24 Social Psychology II

What are attitudes and how are they formed?
What is cognitive dissonance theory?
How can attitudes be forcibly changed?
What is prejudice, how do they develop and what are the characteristics of the prejudice-prone?
What are stereotypes and how do they develop?
How can you combat prejudice?
How would a social learning theorist explain aggressive behavior in society?
What can be done about aggression?

APPENDIX D

Class : Introduction to Psychology 101
Saturday — 9:00 AM
Discussion Worksheet -- Chapter

Name :

Date :

CONDITIONING AND LEARNING I

WHAT IS LEARNING?

Learning is a relatively permanent change on behavior due to an experience. Learning that results from conditioning depends on reinforcement. Reinforcement increases the probability that a particular response will occur or said another way, what reinforcement does is to strengthen learning and make a particular response more probable.

WHAT IS CLASSICAL CONDITIONING?

Classical conditioning is focused on what happens before a response. We begin with a stimulus that reliably triggers a response. In classical conditioning, antecedent events become associated with one another and a stimulus that does not produce a response is linked with one that does. Operant conditioning involves learning that is affected by consequences. Each time a response is made, it may be followed by a reinforcer, by punishment or by nothing. These results determine whether a response is likely to be made again.

The Pavlov studies shows that classical conditioning occurs when a neutral stimulus (NS) is associated with an unconditioned stimulus (US). The US causes a reflexive reaction called the unconditioned response (UR). If the NS is consistently paired with the US, it becomes a conditioned stimulus (CS) capable of producing a response in itself. This response is a learned response. When the conditioned stimulus is followed by the unconditioned stimulus, conditioning is reinforced. When the CS is repeatedly presented alone, conditioning is extinguished. After extinction appears to be complete, a conditioned response may briefly reappear. This is called the spontaneous recovery.

Through stimulus generalization, stimuli similar to the conditioned stimulus will also produce a response. In stimulus discrimination, an organism learns to respond to one stimulus, but no to other, similar stimuli.

WHAT IS EMOTIONAL CONDITIONING?

Emotional responses may be conditioned to new stimuli. Emotions are extremely important because they affect us in a subtly way but definitely conditioned us as much or greater than our natural reflexes. As a result, we also develop fears or phobias. A phobia is a fear that

persists even when no realistic danger exists. Reactions of this type, called conditioned emotional responses, are often broadened into phobias by stimulus generalization. There is a therapy treatment called desentization, use to countercondition fear, anxiety and phobia.

Conditioning of emotional responses can take place directly or secondhand. The fact that conditioning of emotional responses can also be learned secondhand, adds to their impact on us. This explains how our emotional attitudes are develop towards different things like politics, religion etc.

WHAT IS OPERANT CONDITIONING?

Operant conditioning is concerned on how we learn to associate responses with their consequences. Acts that are reinforced tend to be repeated. Edward L. Thorndike call this the Law of effect. Psychologists define an operant reinforcer as any event that follows a response and increases its probability. Shaping, a technique frequently used with animals, probes that operant responses can be taught by reinforcing successive approximations to a final desired response.

Finally, it is also important to mention that if an operant response is not reinforced, it may extinguish but after disappearance, it may temporarily reappear, which is also call spontaneous recovery.

DESCRIBE TYPES OF REINFORCEMENT AND PUNISHMENT?

Reinforcement can be positive or negative. Positive reinforcement rewards the behavior. In Negative reinforcement, a response ends discomfort. Both positive and negative reinforcement increases responding. With punishment, though, responding is decreased. Punishment occurs when a response is followed by the onset of discomfort or a negative event. Punishment can also be based on the removal of a positive event.

There are two types of operant reinforcements, primary and secondary. Primary reinforces are natural, for instance our pleasure center in the brain (intra-cranial stimulation). Secondary reinforces are learned. They occur by association with primary reinforcers or by being subject to exchange for primary reinforcers. Some types are prepotent or frequent responses, that can be used to reinforce low-frequency responses; generalized reinforcer like money, that can be used to exchange for many other reinforces; and tokens or money gain.

WHAT IS STIMULUS CONTROL?

Stimulus control is when a stimuli that precede a reinforced response tends to control when and where the response occurs on future occasions. There are two aspects of stimulus control, generalization and discrimination. In generalization, an operant response tends to occur when stimuli are present which were associated with reinforcement in the past. In discrimination, responses are given in the presence of discriminative stimuli previously associated with reinforcement and withheld in the presence of stimuli associated with non-reinforcement.

APPENDIX E

Name:_____

Group Leader Effectiveness

Presents theoretical ideas from the text in a clear way.

Presents examples of how these concepts apply to our everyday life.

Asks questions to seek input from others.

Recognizes limitations or assumptions of an idea or theoretical framework.

Comments:

Group Discussion Participation

Contributes to the group's thinking.

Avoids counterproductive actions.

Applies theoretical framework to real life experiences.

Critiques & analyzes theoretical framework presented.

NOTES

GROUP LEADER EFFECTIVENESS

GROUP DISCUSSION PARTICIPATION

COLLABORATIVE LEARNING ACROSS THE PSYCHOLOGY CURRICULUM:

Tracey T. Manning, Ph.D. and Sally N. Wall, Ph.D.
The College of Notre Dame of Maryland
Baltimore, Maryland 21210

STRUCTURE AND PROCESSES OF COLLABORATIVE LEARNING

Benefits of Collaborative Learning

Collaborative (often called cooperative) learning is defined by five key elements: positive interdependence, face-to-face interaction, individual accountability, interpersonal and small group skills, and group processing of group functioning (Johnson, Johnson and Holubec, 1986.) The positive interdependence of group members means that they need to rely on each other for learning course material, rather than just on their teacher or on themselves as individuals. It is what distinguishes the collaborative learning group from a discussion group. While faculty are usually able to structure small group discussions and individual accountability into their courses, they may be reluctant to use collaborative learning as a pedagogy due to unfamiliarity with its many varieties or inexperience in developing collaborative learning groups. Both of these issues will be addressed in this presentation.

Why would college faculty want to include more collaborative learning in their courses? "Active learning," an umbrella term which includes collaborative pedagogies, has been recognized for both involving students in learning and aiding them to think about psychology more deeply than relatively passive lecture techniques do (Meyers and Jones, 1993). Active learning is described as a process in which students talk and listen, read, write and reflect, stimulated by class structures or teaching strategies such as small group discussion or cooperative projects (Meyers and Jones, 1993). Collaborative learning's specific benefits include students' development of increased interpersonal and group process skills (e.g. Bryant, 1978 and our own course evaluations.) This benefit often extends to their faculty mentors as well!

Faculty and Student Roles in Collaborative Learning Experiences

Faculty roles in collaborative learning classes and exercises differ considerably from those involved in primarily lecture or large group discussion classes. They include structuring learning experiences for student groups, facilitating team building and effective group process, consulting to small groups on issues related to course content, managing and resolving group conflict, as well as teaching interpersonal and group skills to students. The challenges for faculty attempting to employ collaborative strategies include the necessary shift from the more familiar presenter role, the need to create new types of learning experiences while still maximizing coverage of content, practical issues of group development and intervention, as well as decisions about group vs. individual accountability and evaluation.

Reciprocal to changing faculty roles, student roles differ from passive note-taking and occasional questions or answers to questions. Student roles in collaborative learning classes and exercises include active reading and listening, eliciting information from others in group, asking questions to clarify course concepts, thoughtful contributions to small group discussion of course material, critical thinking about the subject (e.g. research articles, concepts, example), mastering interpersonal and group skills, and facilitating their own learning through group participation and leadership. The challenges for students in this new mode include finding ways of effective cooperation with others who differ from them (e.g. in motivation, ability or work habits, as well as in demographic ways), coping with logistical and scheduling problems in out-of-class projects, and balancing work load equitably among group members.

There are numerous ways the faculty member may utilize collaborative learning to increase students' depth and breadth of comprehension of psychology. Entire college courses may be restructured around collaborative learning or collaborative experiences of long or short duration may be incorporated into more traditionally-structured courses. In the last ten years, we have successfully reorganized numerous lower and upper level, as well as graduate, psychology courses to function as collaborative courses. These include Theories of Personality, Social Psychology, Child and Adolescent Development, Introduction to Counseling, and graduate Adulthood and Aging and Social Relationships courses. We have also successfully developed long-term collaborative projects in many courses (e.g. Introductory Psychology, Child and Adolescent Development, Experimental/Statistical Methods, and graduate Leadership Seminar) as well as used short collaborative exercises in all our classes.

COURSES STRUCTURED AROUND COLLABORATIVE LEARNING GROUPS

General Structure and Processes in a Collaborative Learning Course

The collaborative learning course is characterized by standing discussion/project groups (ideally 5 - 6 members each) which engage in a variety of group learning activities in class and occasionally outside of class. We have found that groups of 7 or more members encourage social loafing and groups of fewer than 5 members become too small when one or two members are absent.

Typical class activities include, instead of class lecture, one or more of the following:

1. Assigned reading/exercises: Students have read the text or other reading assignments or have done workbook exercises. They come to class prepared to discuss this material in their small group. Each group later turns in a daily grade sheet on which all students have rated their level of preparation on a Likert-type scale (e.g. 4 = all reading/exercises thoroughly completed, 3 = reading/exercises mostly or superficially completed).

2. Jigsaw exercises: Students summarize an original research article using a "journal article summary form," with 2 - 4 different articles assigned within a group. Students with weaker backgrounds are always assigned to double up on an article. In class, students first meet in "article groups" to discuss and clarify major aspects of the article, and then present their article to their regular small group. Groups have an integrative question to discuss, which will be an essay question on the next test.

   Examples: What are the major influences on aggression against women?
   Compare and contrast the impact of transformational and transactional leadership styles on subordinates.

3. Integrative group analyses of video or other presentations: The small groups view and then discuss stimulus materials such as videos and draw conclusions about concepts in human behavior. A temporary "group secretary" records and reports these to the class as a whole. The instructor helps the class process similarities and differences between group conclusions.

Members of collaborative learning groups often form study groups to prepare for examinations, meeting outside of class hours. Critical thinking, application and analysis questions form the bulk of the test, sometimes essay and sometimes in multiple choice format. Test questions are given ahead of time; for multiple choice tests, students receive the questions (but not the multiple choice answers) and work together (usually in their regular small group) to take a mastery approach to the questions before taking the examination as individuals.

Group Development in a Collaborative Learning Course

Group development proceeds in structured stages. In Forming Groups, the first class begins the process. We usually divide students randomly into groups, by counting off to have a maximum of 6 persons per group. We often use an "introduce yourself to a partner" 5 minute discussion, followed by partners introducing each other to the new small group.

At this time we explain the collaborative learning concept, including the benefits and functioning of small groups. Especially with older students or high achievers, we need to address the misgivings students often have about depending on others for learning outcomes. Group members are asked to set norms for "how you want to work together to learn psychology." Confidentiality of any personal sharing in the group is given as a norm by the instructor if students neglect to include it.

Developing Groups proceeds informally, as the instructor moves from group to group in the first few class meetings, helping students learn how to explain and clarify concepts. About two weeks into the course (depending upon number of class meetings), we solicit the first group feedback, with a form asking students to list group members and identify what they, other group members and the instructor could do to improve the group's functioning. After completing the form, group members talk together about what's working and what needs improvement. As a consultant, the instructor helps groups plan strategies to increase their effectiveness. The instructor then receives all the forms, planning additional interventions where necessary. After two more weeks, we do another evaluation to check group progress using the same process.

Assessing Groups and Individuals is done through a midterm evaluation which asks for feedback on how individuals in group are contributing, including ratings/rankings on level of preparation, participation, and group leadership. A final group evaluation uses the same format as the midterm one, and asks for individual progress since midterm in qualitative and quantitative form. In some courses points earned through midterm and final group feedback are a small but significant percentage of course grade (e.g. Introduction to Counseling).

Resolving Group Conflicts/Problems is an as-needed process. We have found it helpful to follow the following principles. First, keep the group as the focus for problem-solving. Resist the temptation to take charge; and instead encourage group members to resolve their problems internally. Second, keep the focus on the conflict/problem rather than on the person(s) involved. Students tend to see others as uncooperative or wrong in their work habits, while not recognizing their own potential contributions to the problem. (This is particularly true with the "I can't trust others so I'll do all the work myself" type, who can often be identified by their tendency to say "I" instead of "we" when discussing group issues or tasks.)

Third, keep the focus on the interpersonal and group skills needed to resolve the current problem, and on the long term benefits of developing these skills. Even when a group member is clearly abdicating her responsibilities, others are challenged to utilize the experience to increase their own skills. Fourth, only if within-group resolution is not successful does the faculty member make a personal group or individual intervention, depending upon the nature of the conflict/problem. This involves directly confronting the person or concern, asking for that individual or group's input on how to solve the problem, identifying the steps necessary to improve the situation, pointing out the negative consequences of failing to resolve it and follow up to see the eventual outcomes.

DISCRETE COLLABORATIVE LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Long Term Projects

Collaborative learning activities which stand on their own and don't require a course structure fall into two broad categories, long term collaborative projects and in-class exercises. The prototypical long-term project involves completion of a research project and/or presentation by two or more people working together outside of class. Courses in which we have found good use for group research project/presentations are Introductory Psychology, Child and Adolescent Development, Social Psychology and, of course, Research Methods.

The first step is structuring the project, by dividing the assignment into sections, which are due sequentially through the course. In the syllabus, we describe the complete assignment, especially what is due for each stage or section. We indicate what percentage each assignment is worth, its due date, how each segment contributes to the total project and whether it can be revised and by when. We also clearly identify which segments of the project are to be turned in by individuals and which are to be turned in by the whole group. We schedule one or two check-in conferences with timing clearly indicated.

Next we pair or group students, using a variety of processes. When students know each other, self-selection often works best. When students don't, we have found it helpful to group by similarity of what they are interested in investigating or by compatible schedules. The latter is especially valuable when some students commute and some are residents. Students can request consultation, individually or in groups, at any point during the project. At the end of course or project, we have students evaluate each member's contribution to each group task and to group functioning. We assign the same grade to each student for group tasks based on quality of assignment, unless there are drastically disparate contributions. Sometimes we assign a group grade and an individual contribution grade.

When group problems aren't informally resolved, we schedule a conflict resolution conference: First, each person is asked to clarify her expectations and to articulate her fears. We then, particularly for women students, differentiate between relationships in a task oriented group and in a friendship. We establish a contract with clear behavioral expectations for each person and schedule follow-up to determine if the contract is being met or needs modifying.

In Class Exercises

In-class collaborative learning exercises use groups or pairs formed only for the purpose of that exercise. Spontaneous groups/pairs are sometimes formed informally by the students or the instructor groups students with particular strengths and weaknesses, e.g. students who have had research methods with students who haven't.

Sometimes exercises are based on material prepared for class. Some possibilities are:

1. Students compare homework problems/questions, identifying questions which they want to ask the professor.

2. The group evaluates each student's examples of a construct (e.g. types of conformity) and decides which of them are accurate. They then present the best to class or each member indicates how he/she would revise the original examples.

3. In group discussion, students relate a newspaper or research article read to material from text or class discussion. Alternatively, students read and analyze research article at home and compare their analyses with others in group.

4. Students apply a concept from their readings to practical examples, e.g. as a group they design child care to foster secure attachment, or identify probable brain injury location from a case description of symptoms.

Some exercises allow the instructor to check comprehension of material just introduced in class or help students to develop a new concept. These may be just a few minutes long or may require more time. For such "quickies," students don't move into groups but talk to the person sitting next to them as a respondent who agrees or disagrees. These could include turning to a seatmate and defining a concept just introduced, repeating the description the instructor just gave, or giving an application of the concept.

In somewhat longer exercises, the informally gathered group may identify examples of a new construct from possible instances given by the instructor, e.g. of dependent and independent variables from list of hypotheses. They could apply material just presented in lecture or video, e.g. write a research conclusion from data analysis, or give evidence from a just-watched film that babies are biased to be social. Another possibility is to have them collect some data to provide concrete illustrations of concepts, e.g. to measure the height of other students and graph the distribution to illustrate central tendency and variability.

Conclusion

The structure and process of collaborative learning courses, projects and exercises is a tremendously beneficial challenge for psychology faculty. In well-designed and facilitated situations, students take an active role in their own learning and as a consequence learn more and more deeply. Collaborative learning experiences can be introduced in small stages into existing class formats until faculty are ready to take the plunge into total redesign of courses. Psychology faculty, with more knowledge of group process than most disciplines, are logical candidates to accept this invitation.

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Research On Trial:

A Pedagogy for Research Methods Instruction

by

Michael A. Britt, Ph.D.
Marist College
Poughkeepsie, N.Y. 12601

Research On Trial:
A Pedagogy for Research Methods Instruction

Goals of the Exercise

The goal of Research on Trial (ROT) is threefold: A) to get students to think critically about psychological research, B) to apply what they have learned in class in an in-depth way to this research, and C) to create a classroom environment in which research issues are debated in an engaging way.

This is done by using a courtroom trial situation to get students to closely examine the strengths and weaknesses of a published research article in psychology. In their assignment to either defend or "prosecute" an article, they must delve into the article deeply, looking for various problems in the design of the research, the possible threats to internal and external validity, measurement issues such as reliability and validity, statistical errors, etc. Simply asking one student to critique an article often proves unsatisfactory in terms of that students' motivation to truly examine the weaknesses of an article, because students often think that if a study is published, it is probably very good. However, critiquing an article is similar to looking at it much as a lawyer must look at a case. The author of an article presents his/her case ("defends" it), and the critical reader must serve as prosecutor (looking for weaknesses). Finally, the reader is also the jury: left to think about the study and decide whether or not they think the study was done well, and the results can be relied upon.

Thus, a debate situation, in which students are asked to critique an article and where they would know that their statements would be challenged seems an ideal way to get students to critique an article in greater depth. Thus the Research On Trial simulation has some students defend an article, some students prosecute the article, and the rest of the class hear all the evidence and then deciding on whether they think the research was well conducted and the results are believable (internally valid) or the study was not well conducted and the results cannot be believed.

Student Instructions:

The purpose of this role-play is to learn more about what makes good research by delving in detail into the "case" that the author(s) of an article try to make about the research they have conducted. The authors of any published research article try to convince the reader of the validity of their conclusions, i.e. the significant results they claim to have found. Consumers of research cannot read the results of these articles without keeping a critical eye on how the research was conducted. Should you believe what the author claims? Should important decisions concerning people who are in need be based upon this research? As psychologists, you will be called upon to make such decisions in your work. Developing a knowledgeable, insightful critical eye is important for psychologists, let alone any educated person.

This simulation is intended to teach and develop skills in being a critical thinker and consumer of research. Since it will be necessary to take liberties with the actual way a courtroom trial is run in order to adapt the scenario to our needs, the simulation will not attempt to teach students about the proper way a courtroom is run.

The Proceedings

Here's how we will conduct the trial:

1. Four students will represent the authors as defense lawyers, and four students will serve as lawyers for the prosecution. The other students in class will serve as a jury and hear the trial and decide whether they believe the defense that the author's conclusions are valid, or that they side with the prosecution that the author's conclusions are not valid.

2. The judge (myself) will make sure the trial proceeds fairly. I will also instruct the jury as to what they are to decide once the proceedings are over.

3. The Presentations of Defense and Prosecution Lawyers. The defense will present their case first to the court. Each person in the group should read carefully the entire article and the group should decide how to best present each section to the class. The defense will concentrate on the article's strengths, although it will serve them well to know the article's weaknesses as well. On the day of the presentation I will randomly assign each member of the group to present a section of the article (Introduction, Method, Results, or Discussion) to the class. Each student will present to the class a summary of that section of the article. You MUST use some form of media to help make your case as clearly and convincingly as possible to the jury (e.g., posters, drawings, handouts, overhead transparencies, etc.). The rest of the defense lawyers will continue by summarizing the other sections of the article. Posters or drawings on the blackboard are particularly encouraged for the Method and Results sections so that the everyone understands what tests were given when, to what group, and what the results indicate. When the defense lawyers have completed presenting their case (plan on 15 minutes maximum), I will randomly assign each of the prosecution lawyers to come up and present their side of the story, discussing each section separately and presenting what they believe are very real concerns about the study.

4. The Summation. After the lawyers for the prosecution section have presented their observations, the defense will have the final word. They can address the criticisms made by the prosecution and reiterate what they feel are the strengths of the article.

5. Jury Deliberations. After the defense summation the judge will explain to the class exactly what decisions they will have to return a verdict on. The jury will be allowed to discuss for approximately 10 minutes and then will be asked for their decisions. Unanimity of decision is not necessary. Please record the vote at the time that I call for the decision. We will then discuss the verdicts.

The Roles

Attorneys for the Defense

The job of the "defense attorneys" is to advocate for the author(s) and try to make the case to the jury that the authors' claims about the results of their research are valid ones.

Everyone in the group should read the article and be familiar with each section so that:

1. you can help each other to build a convincing case. Try to win the case by presenting the research in its best light. This also means paying attention to the weaknesses as well as the strengths of the article. What argument will you use to defend the author against the attacks of the prosecution if you (and they) see a weakness in the research? You may break up the article into four parts (Introduction, Methods, Results, and Discussion) but *everyone* in the group should be prepared to discuss any section because on the day of the trial I will randomly assign each member of the group to the section I want them to present to the class.

2. you can defend it from the questions/criticisms that will be made against it by the prosecution. Know the strengths and weaknesses of the article.

Attorneys for the Prosecution

The job of the "prosecution attorneys" is to examine the research carefully and pay particular attention to the weaknesses and possible confounds in every section of the study.

Everyone in the group should read the article and be familiar with each section so that:

1. you can help each other to build a convincing case. Try to win the case by poking holes in the research. This means paying particular attention to the weaknesses of the article. What arguments will you use to place doubt in the jury's mind about the validity of the author's conclusions? You may break up the article into four parts (Introduction, Methods, Results, and Discussion) but *everyone* in the group should be prepared to discuss any section because on the day of the trial I will randomly assign each member of the group to the section I want them to present to the class.

2. you can expertly pinpoint possible areas of weakness in the research. Prepare your critiques, and be ready to try to convince the jury that the problems you have found are serious enough to place in doubt the conclusions of the authors.

General Note: Think about the article and come up with your own questions about the research. What do you see as strengths and weaknesses of their approach? It is very helpful to try imagining yourself as a subject in this experiment. What would you experience?

The Jury

The class should listen carefully to the arguments presented by both sides. Carefully study the evidence that is given to you. Your job is to decide whether or not the author has done a good piece of research. No study is ideal, but can you have confidence in the results of this research? Feel free to raise your hand at any point in the trial.

Grading procedure: Your grade is NOT based upon whether the jury agrees with the defense or the prosecution. I will pay attention to your presentation looking mostly for your ability to explain the article CLEARLY. This will not be easy. Remember that the jury will not have read the article. Recall that some form of assistance to the jury, in the form of drawings, posters, transparencies, or handouts which clarify the predictions, the research design, the results, etc., are REQUIRED. After the presentation I will ask each member of the group to give each other member of their group, and themselves, a letter grade based upon their contribution to the presentation. I will consider all this information in assigning each student a grade for this project.

To assist you in critiquing the articles, keep in mind the following threats described by Campbell and Stanley (1963):

Internal Validity

At issue: How confident are you that the author's conclusions really do represent the effect of the I.V. on the D.V? i.e., are the author's conclusions solid, believable, convincing ones?

1. History: Did anything unusual happen during the course of the experiment that could have affected the D.V.?

Look for: a long time between the pre-test and post.

2. Maturation: Are the results possibly due to natural changes in the subjects over time? For example, are subjects much older at the end of the study? More tired?

Look for: a long time between the pre-test and post

3. Testing: If there was a pre-test, could it have affected the post-test in any way?

Look for: Subjects who are unfamiliar with taking tests, who may have gotten better at taking them a second time, the same test used both at the pre-test and the post-test.

4. Instrumentation: Examine all the measurement instruments used in the article. Are they good instruments (reliable and valid)?

Look for: Reliability and validity information? (i.e., alpha coefficients, test/retest info, etc.). Were they "home grown" instruments? Were people used to measure things? (Inter-judge reliability)

5. Regression: If subjects were chosen to participate in the study on the basis of extreme scores, could scores have naturally moved toward the mean upon a re-test?

Look for: Subjects chosen because they were poor/very good readers, had low self-esteem, etc.

6. Selection: How were subjects were selected? Was it random? If not, what problems could occur as a result of the selection strategy used?

Look for: Information regarding how the subjects were chosen to be in the study.

7. Mortality: Did any subjects drop out? Could this have affected the results?

Look for: How many subs took the pre-test and how many took the post-test? Are there unequal n sizes at the data collection points? Small n sizes may violate assumptions of normality of t and f tests. Also: statistical significance using a large N (ex: 1,000 subs) may not be practically significant.

External Validity

Q: If we assume that the author's conclusions are valid, the next question is: will the findings apply to anyone else? Are the findings unique to just the subjects used in the study, or will they generalize to other populations?

Consider the sources of potential invalidity outlined by Stanley and Campbell.

1. Interaction of testing and X: Does it appear that the treatment works, but only if a pretest is given? If so, the treatment may not work elsewhere unless a pretest is also given.

2. Interaction of selection and X: Does it appear that the treatment works, but because of the selection strategy used or type of subject, it may work only for these particular subjects?

3. Reactive arrangements: The treatment works, but only if the subject is in an experimental situation and the treatment may not work without all the "trappings" of being a research project.

Effectiveness of ROT

As yet, no experimental study has been carried out on the technique. However, the technique did receive an evaluation in the Fall of 1994. Students who had just participated in it were asked to fill out questionnaires regarding their assessment of the efficacy of the approach. These results are shown in Appendix A. Student reaction was quite favorable. Some were apprehensive about giving an oral presentation to class, but afterward agreed that it was a valuable experience. They do report typical problems with a group project: some members contributing more than others, for example. It is hoped that students will feel it important to learn each section of the article and contribute to the group process since they know that the teacher will only assign which student is to present which section of the article on the day of the presentation. Students will need to exercise and develop their group process skills in order to make the project work well. Jury members found the experience confusing at times. This is discussed in the section below. Each semester that the ROT has been assigned, student feedback has used to refine the technique.

Areas That Need Attention

The ROT tends to involve students to the point where the prosecution may become overly critical, or the defense may become overly defensive or sensitive to critical comments. When students assume roles, they can take these roles very seriously, as the now famous Stanford prison study showed (Haney & Zimbardo, 1977). Thus, interpersonal tension has been noted between defense and prosecution teams. This has to be addressed both before, during, and after the ROT so that such tensions do not detract from the goal of the project.

The jury may find it difficult to follow the description of the research because students are sometimes not skilled at making oral presentations. It is important that overheads or handouts be required from each set of lawyers ("exhibits A and B") so that the jury is assisted in their understanding of what has occurred in the article.

Conclusion

The Research On Trial technique appears to be an effective way to involve students in examining published research in an in-depth manner, and in getting them to apply what they have learned to a specific piece of research. They learn that no study is perfect, and that compromises have to be made along the way. They also learn in a manner that results in stimulating class discussion and debate.

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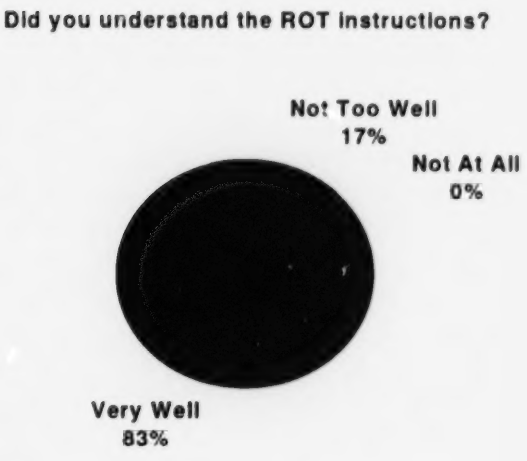
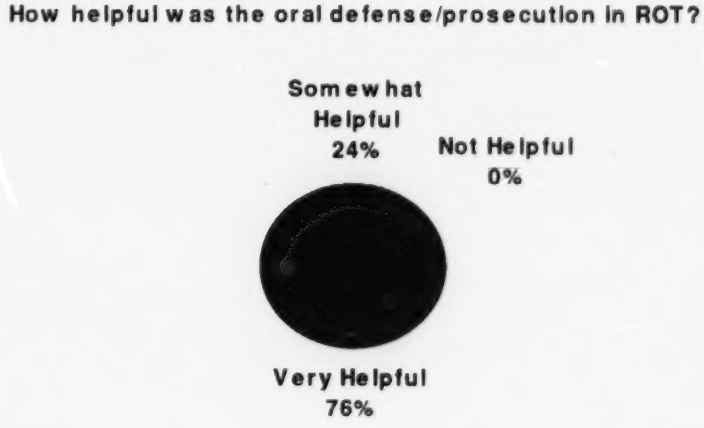
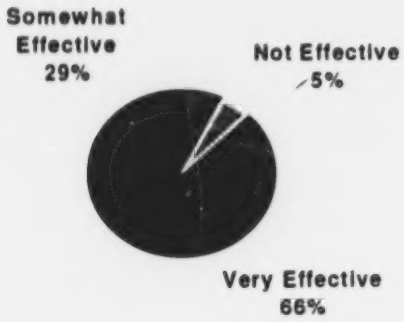
Appendix A

Student Reaction to Research On Trial

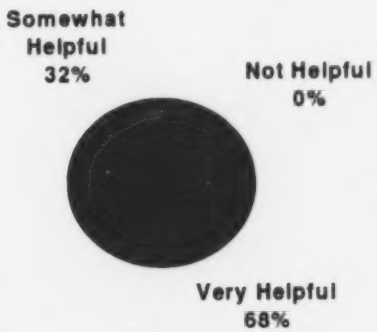




How effective was the group process in ROT?



How helpful was being a jury member in ROT?



The Perception of Familiar Objects

Robert P. Cavalier and Richard K. Wesp
Elmira College

The Perception of Familiar Objects

Robert P. Cavalier and Richard K. Wesp

Elmira College

We involved a group of workshop participants in a demonstration of a real-life illusion. Participants overestimated the height of a classroom garbage can by nearly 50% and considered explanations for this illusion. We discuss how ecologically valid demonstrations of laboratory conceptualizations of illusions can help to generate student interest in and understanding of perception.

We have observed for several years that the height of a classroom garbage can was routinely overestimated when presented spontaneously in class during a lecture on perception. This illusion has been found to be a very powerful one and hence a dramatic illustration of the phenomenon of illusions, especially in the introductory psychology course. Since the garbage can is a common element in the environment it has special teaching advantages over apparatus typically used in laboratory demonstrations. Rather than discussing how we apply our demonstration we involved attendees of our session at the Conference on Undergraduate Teaching of Psychology in the demonstration as if they were students in our introductory psychology classes. Below we describe the demonstration and how it was used to generate discussion about perception.

Workshop Demonstration

The illusion Participants were given an index card and asked to write an estimate of the height in inches of a standard classroom garbage can that was placed on a table at the front of the room. Participants were then asked to estimate the diameter of the base of the can. They were reminded to write their estimates on the card and identify the height and base estimates respectively.

After the responses were written on each card, participants were told that we would proceed to establish the range and median height estimate of the group. Participants were asked to raise a hand if their estimate was under 40 inches. All raised their hand. Participants were asked to lower their hand when they heard an estimate lower or equal to theirs. We then counted slowly in descending order from 40, noting when the first hand was lowered, when half of the hands were down, and when the last hand was lowered. The same procedure was repeated for estimates of the diameter of the base.

We then measured the height and width of the demonstration garbage-can. The median estimate of height was 20 inches. That compared with an actual measurement of 14.5 inches. The median estimate of the base was 12 inches. That compared with an actual measurement of 10 inches. We reported to the group that in several large classes we have found that the median estimate of the height is about 20 inches while the estimate of the base is within an inch of its actual diameter; they significantly overestimate the height but not the base of the garbage can. While we did not calculate the statistical

significance of the effect, the workshop participants seemed to have performed similarly.

Group discussion of the illusion In the next phase of our demonstration we attempted to engage the participants in a discussion about why one might overestimate the height, but not the base, of the garbage can. Participants were asked to pair up or form small groups and identify at least three explanations for the overestimation. After about five minutes the groups were asked to offer some of their explanations. As each was offered a summary phrase was written on a flip chart. Groups were encouraged to note when they had generated similar explanations. We then initiated discussion of the merits of the hypotheses. For example, one group suggested that the object was not one we typically think of in terms of size but another group argued that if that caused the error it should not have been a consistent overestimation and they should have made a similar error in estimating the base. We then encouraged discussion of methods by which the hypotheses could be evaluated. For example, one group hypothesized that the truncated shape may have caused the overestimation and suggested that testing be replicated with a non-truncated can.

After several minutes of discussion we told participants that this was typical of the reaction to this demonstration and that many of their hypotheses were similar to those offered by our students. Subsequently we discussed how the demonstration is a useful means of showing students how the material they study in Psychology has a practical reality and offers students a simple line of research they can pursue without a lab or budget.

Conclusions

The illusion appears to be robust and reliable. Estimates in the workshop and in classes we formally tested averaged nearly one and a half times the actual height. Eighty-seven percent of a recently tested class overestimated the height. Similar results have been informally observed over several years.

Evidence of the power of the garbage can illusion provides a convincing argument for its use as a teaching demonstration. The naturalness and spontaneity involved in the use of a classroom garbage can dramatically illustrates the unreliability of human perception for "real world" objects customarily found in the environment.

The use of ecologically valid examples of illusions can help to generate student interest and understanding of the influence of illusions on perception. Several textbooks we reviewed provide the reader with examples of real-life illusions. Similarly, several instructor's manuals offer suggestions for discussions about real-life examples. While a discussion of the moon illusion or why fog might distort a pilots sense of depth is interesting, it does not provide students with immediate concrete personal experience with the illusions. The garbage can illusion simply demonstrates how objects students encounter on a daily basis might be misinterpreted by their perceptual systems. The demonstration is thereby very successful in generating interest and discussion about illusions.

Using a Computerized Laboratory as a Springboard for Transforming a Traditional Lecture Course

Peter A. Hornby

Psychology Department

SUNY College at Plattsburgh

Plattsburgh, NY 12901

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Peter A. Hornby
Department of Psychology
SUNY College at Plattsburgh
Plattsburgh, NY 12901
hornbypa@splava.cc.plattsburgh.edu

ABSTRACT

This paper describes how incorporating a computerized laboratory component into a traditional lower division, lecture oriented, cognitive psychology course has fundamentally transformed the way the course is being taught. The new laboratory-based course is motivated by different instructional goals, provides more active/constructive learning experiences, produces greater peer interaction, leads to more informal student teacher roles, and supports more diverse methods of evaluation. All of these changes have been evaluated positively by the students and appear to have contributed to an overall improvement of the course. Although achieving these modifications might have been possible without the addition of a computerized laboratory, it is clear that the addition of the laboratory has been a pivotal factor in leading to these changes.

Cognitive psychology deals with the scientific study of mental processes. This includes attention, perception, memory, reasoning, decision making, problem solving and language behavior. It is an area of psychology that uses fairly abstract theoretical concepts and employs fairly technical and sophisticated research procedures. Despite the difficulty of the material, most undergraduate psychology programs have at least one course in cognitive psychology as core component of their major requirements. At SUNY Plattsburgh, a freshman/sophomore level cognitive psychology course has been taught for the past 14 years and is taken by most psychology students as an elective part of their major requirements. One section is offered every semester and has an enrollment limit of 60 students. It is almost always fully enrolled.

For a number of years, the cognitive psychology course was taught without any hands on laboratory experiences. The class met three times a week in a small lecture hall, and class activities consisted primarily of lectures, student questions and occasional classroom demonstrations. The major instructional goal of the course was to provide students with an understanding of the theoretical and empirical foundations of current work in cognitive psychology. Presentation and discussion of the results of past research represented a core part of the material covered in the course. Students were assigned readings from a textbook, attended lectures which reviewed and supplemented the text, and were evaluated primarily by means of objective exams. Students also prepared a term paper dealing with a topic of their choice from within the field

* This paper was presented at the 9th Annual Conference on Undergraduate Teaching of Psychology, Ellenville, NY, March 23, 1995.

of cognitive psychology. These papers generally consisted of a review of several research studies related to a particular question. The focus of the course was on mastering basic content. In its original form, the cognitive psychology course can probably be considered to have employed a fairly traditional format for a large, lower division college class.

THE ADDITION OF COMPUTERIZED LABORATORY ACTIVITIES

In 1987, the availability of a small number of MS-DOS based microcomputers within the Psychology Department made possible the introduction of computerized laboratory activities as a component of the cognitive psychology course. Since many of the research techniques that are used in studying mental processes involve fairly abstract reasoning and are therefore potentially confusing, the opportunity for students to have some direct concrete experience with these methods suggested itself as a useful addition to the course. It was also believed that by engaging students in simulations of the research process, they would become more highly motivated to understand the theoretical foundations and to generate alternative explanations for the findings. To achieve this goal, packages of commercial software were purchased that contained a number of simulations of classic experiments in cognitive psychology. From this material, it was possible to identify a total of eight experiments that students could participate in as subjects.

Initial Use of Computers

In the early stages of the use of the computers, students were simply given an assignment to complete the series of activities at specified times throughout the semester. Since the department facility consisted of five MS DOS based machines, each located in an individual room, students worked on the activities alone under the supervision of an undergraduate teaching assistant. Students in the course came to the laboratory at an assigned time and obtained a disk and a prepared handout from the TA. The handouts contains instructions for completing the activity and a set of questions to be answered as a homework assignment. The computer activities themselves took 15 to 20 minutes to complete. After all students had completed the activity out of class, another 15 to 20 minutes of class time was allocated to presenting the aggregated class results and answering student questions prior to their completing the homework assignment. In this approach, which was used for two semesters, the computerized activities can best be considered to represent a small modification to the course. They did not play a particularly central role in terms of course time, course objectives, or course design. Questions about the laboratory activities were, however, included on the standard objective exams, and homework grades were factored in as a part of the students final course grade.

The Present Course

Although the introduction of computerized activities began as a relatively small change to the course, it has gradually resulted in a fundamentally different type of course. What follows is a description of the course as it is now being offered. The class still has an enrollment limit of 60 students who attend class three times per week. But what occurs in class as well as out of class is fundamentally different. On Monday and Wednesday, all students meet together for a fifty-minute class session. The remaining class period each week has now been changed into a laboratory/recitation session. From Wednesday to Friday, groups of six students meet together for a one-hour session under the supervision of an undergraduate teaching assistant. A listing of the specific laboratory activities currently being used is included in the Appendix. The laboratory facility has now been modified so that sixteen computers are housed in a single room. Because of the nature of the experiments, students still work individually to complete the activity, but following the activity, they discuss the experience with the other students in their group. These discussions are supervised by a

TA, and are facilitated by discussion questions that are included in a Laboratory Manual (Hornby, 1994) that is now part of the required text material for the course. The Manual, which contains a chapter for each activity, provides historical and theoretical background for the activity, specific instructions for completing the exercise, places for the students to record their results, discussion questions, and questions to be answered in the homework assignments. Individual student data are also stored anonymously on disc. With only six students in each laboratory group, it is possible for all students to become actively involved in discussing the exercise. Since they have just completed an activity that they usually do not completely understand, they are motivated to ask questions and discuss their experiences. The discussion sessions are active and students get to know one another quite well. Following the laboratory sessions, a significant part of the next class meeting is devoted to a presentation and discussion of the aggregated data, as well as a critique of the experimental design and a discussion of alternative interpretations of the data. Students then complete and turn in a written homework assignment from the manual at their next laboratory session. With 60 students in the course, there are 10 laboratory sections. Most semesters, three upper division students who have previously completed the course and done well, serve as TA's. These students meet once a week with the instructor to prepare for the week's laboratory activity, to discuss techniques for facilitating group interaction and to discuss guidelines for homework evaluation. Since approximately one-and-one-half class sessions per week are now devoted to the laboratory component of the course, the opportunity for lecturing has been significantly reduced. Because of this, students are now more dependent on the textbook as a source of learning the basic course content. A new textbook (Ellis & Hunt, 1993) has recently been adopted. This book is explicitly designed to focus in depth on "selected experiments and their implications for the conceptual issues rather than attempt an exhaustive survey of the empirical literature." In order to facilitate student's mastery of the textbook, the are provided with a study guide prepared by the instructor which is included as part of the laboratory manual. A part of the Monday class period is devoted to discussion and clarification of the material in the assigned reading. Explanations and examples are provided in response to questions, but this material is not typically covered in lectures. On Wednesday, a brief quiz on the reading, based heavily on the study guide, is given at the beginning of the class. The remainder of the Wednesday class is devoted to the presentation of a 35 to 40 minute lecture on a supplementary topic. In general, these lectures deal with the presentation and critique of research and theoretical issues related to topics covered in the text. Because about 50% of the course is now devoted to laboratory activities, the requirement of a term paper has been changed to a formal, written, laboratory report based on one of the first eight activities. This is a cooperative learning project with each lab group working together as a team to prepare their report. Guidelines for the preparation of this report as well as rules for the cooperative nature of the assignment are outlined in the Laboratory Manual. Finally, students are still required to take three objective examinations which cover text material, laboratory activities, and lecture presentations.

IMPACT OF COURSE CHANGES

Changes in Instructional Objectives

The course is now focused on understanding the process of doing cognitive psychology rather than simply learning about the products of previous research. There is greater emphasis on research design, interpretation of findings, and consideration of additional research issues. Helping students understand the transition from theory to research and back to theory is now a major goal. The acquisition of a working knowledge of basic concepts, vocabulary, and principles, has become a secondary goal.

Increased Active Learning

The laboratory sessions provide students with hands-on experience with classic research

studies in cognitive psychology. By taking the role of subjects, students are motivated to understand what they have done, what the research results might mean, and what alternative interpretations are possible. Laboratory discussions following the activities are lively, and students come to class primed to discuss the overall results. The homework assignments in the laboratory manual require the students to analyze and evaluate their own experience as well as the research design and the interpretation of the results. In addition, students must rely more heavily on acquiring knowledge from their reading assignments since they can not assume that this material will be presented in lecture.

Increased Peer Interaction

Once a week, students spend an hour in the laboratory in a small group setting. They actively discuss the material with each other and with their teaching assistant, and they often get together outside of class to work on their homework assignments. Students have also indicated that they frequently meet for study sessions to prepare for the weekly quizzes and the exams. The addition of a cooperative learning approach to preparing the formal laboratory report also necessitates peer interaction and results in a series of outside class meetings.

More Informal Student/Instructor Roles

Students learn from their own activities in the laboratory, from discussions with their peers and their teaching assistants and from reading the textbook. The instructor is only one of several sources of information, and appears to be perceived more as a facilitator and clarifier than as the primary source of learning. The decreased use of the lecture format has resulted in more informal class discussions. Students also seem more willing to indicate when they are having difficulties with the material. Perhaps this is because there is an atmosphere of questioning and considering alternatives, rather than learning correct answers.

Additional Methods of Student Evaluation

Student learning and performance are still evaluated by means of objective exams and a written term project. However, students now receive additional grades on twelve weekly quizzes and ten laboratory based homework assignments. They also receive a grade on the cooperatively prepared research report. More than one-third of the final course grade is now based on laboratory related activities.

CONCLUSIONS

The incorporation of a computerized laboratory component has resulted in a variety of course modifications. Although the extent to which the course would be reshaped by the addition of the computer-based activities was not originally foreseen, it is felt that the overall course has been improved by these changes. Course evaluations conducted throughout the period of change reflect positively on the directions that the course has taken. Although several of the changes that have occurred could have been implemented without the addition of computerized activities, it was this addition that served as the initial impetus. All of the subsequent changes can be considered accommodations that were necessary in order to allow the students to fully benefit from the learning experience available from the computer exercises. The potential for the utilization of computerized learning experiences is certainly not unique to psychology courses, and definitely not unique to cognitive psychology. The opportunity to use computers to provide hands-on activities, to support cooperative learning, and to provide active learning exercises is available in most disciplines. It is suggested, however, that simply adding these activities to a traditional course will not be as effective as allowing them to be a springboard for a major course overhaul. It is hoped that the example described in this paper will be instructive to faculty in who are considering the incorporation of computerized activities into a traditional lecture course.

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APPENDIX

Computerized Laboratory Activities

Lab #1 - Sensory Storage (Iconic Memory, COMPSYCH, Department of Psychology, SUNY, Plattsburgh, NY).
Subjects attempt to recall up to eight letters that are presented on the computer screen for 50 msec. Independent variables are whole vs. partial report, and immediate vs. delayed cue. Dependent variable is recall accuracy.

Lab #2 - Prototype Formation (Visual Memory, COMPSYCH, Department of Psychology, SUNY, Plattsburgh, NY).
Subjects attempt to discriminate between faces (and triangles) that were either included or not included in an array of 15 that were previously presented one at a time. Independent variables include type of stimulus (faces vs. triangles), whether the face (or triangle) was in the array, serial position for stimuli that were present, and type of prototype (attribute frequency or central tendency). Dependent variable is discrimination accuracy.

Lab #3 - Mental Imagery (Mental Rotation, Discovery Psychology, Life Science Associates, Bayshore, NY). Subjects are presented with a series of capital letter R's at each of 8 angles of rotation from the vertical. They must judge whether the R is normal or a mirror image of an R. Independent variable is angle of rotation of the stimulus. Dependent variable is median response time for accurate judgments.

Lab #4 - Levels of Processing (Levels of Processing I, Laboratory in Memory & Cognition, CONDUIT, The University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA). Subjects are presented with a series of words and asked to make judgments about physical letter patterns, sound patterns (rhyming) or meaning (category membership). They are subsequently given a surprise recognition test. Independent variable is the type of processing task (shallow, intermediate, deep). Dependent variable is recognition accuracy.

Lab #5 - Encoding Specificity (Encoding Specificity II, Laboratory in Memory & Cognition, CONDUIT, The University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA). Subjects are presented with word pairs that are remotely associated. They are instructed that the first word will be presented later as a recall cue for the second word. Using a between subjects design, subjects are subsequently, presented either with the initial cue words, a different set of cue words that are strongly associated with the target words, or no recall cues. The independent variable is the type of cue. The dependent variable is recall accuracy.

Lab #6 - Semantic Memory (Semantic Memory, Laboratory in Memory & Cognition, CONDUIT, The University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA). Subjects judge the truth value of simple statements about category membership (e.g. A parrot is a bird). The independent variables are whether the statement is true or false, the hierarchical relationship between the words, and the judged similarity between the concepts. The dependent variables are accuracy and response time.

Lab #7 - Concept Formation (Concept Formation, COMPSYCH, Dept. of Psychology, SUNY, Plattsburgh, NY).
Subjects are presented with a series of differently colored and sized geometric shapes and must attempt to determine which are instances of a concept. Independent variables include two vs. three dimensions of variation,

and (for a second experiment) whether the rule involved in conjunctive or disjunctive.

Lab #8 - Text Comprehension (Constructive Processes III, Laboratory in Memory & Cognition, CONDUIT, The University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA). Subjects read a series of fictitious advertisements that include claims about the products described. The independent variables are whether the statement was actually stated or pragmatically implied. The dependent variable is accuracy of discrimination between statements and implications.

Lab #9 - Problem Solving (River Crossing, COMPSYCH, Department of Psychology, SUNY, Plattsburgh, NY). Subjects must generate the necessary moves to transport 5 Hobbits and 5 Orcs across a river in a boat that has a capacity of 3. They can not violate the constraint that Orcs can never outnumber Hobbits in any location, and the boat must contain at least one individual. The independent variable is whether subjects are presented with a subgoal or not. The dependent variable is the number of trips required.

Lab #10 - Language Processing (Reading, Laboratory in Cognition & Perception, CONDUIT, The University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA). Subjects read a series of sentences presented one word at a time on the screen. Subjects are instructed to read as fast as they can but to achieve comprehension. They are tested for comprehension after each sentence. Independent variables include part of speech, voice (active/passive), practice, and position of phrase boundary. The dependent variable is reading time per word.

Teaching Statistics: Shaping, Fading and Concept Formation

George C. Fago, Ph.D.

Ursinus College

TEACHING STATISTICS: SHAPING, FADING, & CONCEPT FORMATION

George C. Fago, Ph.D.
Ursinus College

For a variety of reasons, both practical and pedagogical, several years ago I designed and implemented a course intended to teach non-experimental research methodology, statistics, and computer applications to introductory students. The course as it has developed assumes little or no background with either computers or statistics. The assumption is that a hands-on approach to these issues in an integrated fashion will enable students to better grasp the utility of these tools and thus prepare them for more formal course work, especially in statistics.

This course is a one semester course which meets for three hours per week for lecture, and one hour per week for lab. Enrollment is limited to a maximum of twenty students, and since it is a required course it is nearly always filled. The students are almost entirely freshmen and sophomores and for the most part are psychology majors. Conceptually the course is divided into three sections: (1) Observational Research, (2) Survey Research, and (3) Correlational Research. In each section, as a collaborative effort, the class designs and carries out an appropriate study. As a part of this process, the issues of sampling (adequacy, size, etc.), operationism, reliability and validity recur repeatedly in class discussion. Students not only are forced to confront these issues at every step in the research design, they also must critique the design in their research reports. This process is

consumes much more time than simple laboratory "demonstration" and so during a term only three studies are actually done.

The laboratory is an integral part of the instructional design. Laboratory meetings are held in a general purpose college computer facility which affords each student an individual monitor, printer, and IBM compatible pc. These machines are 'networked' and students have access to SPSS-Studentware on the network. They are also required to purchase the SPSS-Studentware manual. The students must provide their own diskettes, on which they ware encouraged to save results of their analyses. In order to run the actual lab sessions I employ at least one and preferably two junior/senior students who are veterans of the course and who have demonstrated solid computer skills. As part of their employment, the students make themselves available as computer consultants at other times on an 'as needed' basis.

The first two laboratory meetings are devoted to very elementary materials. Lab one introduces students to computers at what ever level it takes-if need be, how to put a diskette into a drive and how to turn on a machine. The lab assistants are particularly helpful at this point, and I also find that students quickly and spontaneously begin to help each other. I also take time to encourage mutual support. Once everybody is up and running, I walk the students through a number of elementary DOS commands such as DIR, CD, CHKDSK, etc. Students receive handouts which give specific step-by-step instructions which they are to follow and which ask for information to be recorded and/or presents questions to be answered. These are collected when

completed and checked/graded to ensure that each student successfully completes the exercises. During the initial labs, students work more as a group through the exercises. This gives me the opportunity to fill in the background--what is a file, what is a directory, what is DOS--as they actually begin to manipulate and look at these concepts come to life on the monitors. The second lab is also primarily a demonstration--it is a walk through of SPSS. It is frankly intended to be a 'gee whiz', 'bells-and-whistles' experience. Again, by means of handouts and my guidance, we take a introductory tour of SPSS as a data analysis tool. For this lab we use 'canned' data--heights, weights, etc. for the college football team. Students start by simply listing the data file, and then enter a number of spss commands which are simple to simple to execute, intuitively obvious, and yield impressive results. They generate simple frequency tables and bar graphs, and they compute means, etc. At this point the intent is simply to give them some elementary familiarity with the system.

In the following weeks, students actually begin to learn statistics, data analysis, and application software usage. It is in these laboratory experiences that 'shaping,' 'fading,' and 'concept formation' principles are used, and they are utilized both within individual laboratory units as well as across the entire term.

Shaping is inherent in the instructional materials throughout the term. In individual instructional units as well as in the units collectively, the emphasis is always on student production and always moves from very simple to the more complex. For

example, by the fourth lab meeting, results of the first observational study are in and students learn to use SPSS and elementary descriptive statistics in order to describe and summarize their findings. By the end of the term students are analyzing the results of a study which includes a psychometric scale which they developed in addition to other psychometrics, and they are using correlation and regression routines to do it. In a like fashion, each unit itself moves from the simple to the complex in a series of stages. For example, students start by determining the mean of a single variable using the 'frequency' command, then using the 'means' command they determine means for that variable sorting by an independent variable. Over a series of additional steps, they determine means classifying by two variables, and they learn to use addition options with the means command.

It is perhaps trite to describe this as 'shaping'. The 'shaping' is of course in the careful attention to detail. Each instructional unit is very carefully thought through and pre-tested so as to assure virtually complete student success. It is unusual for students to get less than complete credit on the individual laboratory exercises. This serves as a powerful delayed reinforcer in addition to the immediate reinforcement that the system feedback provides. It is very obvious from observation that students find successful completion of these commands to be very reinforcing. At the same time the student is being required in class as well as lab to come to grips with the research--to understand the results and to convey that understanding to others in a research report. The laboratory work is coordinated so that students in the lab actually

work with their own data and are introduced to the procedures which they will use to analyze the data set. In many cases, students leave the lab with significant portions of their data analysis completed.

Fading and concept formation is also implicit within every instructional unit and between instructional units as well. One of the tasks facing the novice data analyst is learning the syntax of the application software and, as anyone who has ever tried teaching software applications knows, this is often a frustrating exercise. In this approach, I try to circumvent this frustration by initially giving such exhaustive and literal instructions that, barring typos, success is assured. Students simply "type" what they are given. Then a series of repetitions with variation follows, which is designed to help the student grasp the 'concept' of the command. At the same time, the student is going through the repetitions, the instructions are becoming progressively more abbreviated. After starting with a literal instruction, students must subsequently carry out varying repetitions with increasingly less literal instructions. As an example, the movement is from "Enter the following command line: **MEANS WEIGHT BY YEAR BY POSITION**" to "Determine the mean weight for the players broken down by year and position." Fading takes place across labs as well as within them. Initially, for example, students are given the exact commands necessary to access the system and the data file. These commands are 'faded out' so that by the middle of the term all that is needed is to tell the students the name of the data file.

During the course of each lab a good deal of collaborative

learning takes place as well. Students cooperate with each other and readily share insights and offer help to others. I very explicitely encourage this kind of cooperation. Not only does it make my job easier, it also is highly effective. Students are often more sensitive to problems in understanding than I am since they are closer to the problem themselves. They have not 'lost their baseline' as we used to say. In addition lab handouts are returned promptly after checking and students are encouraged to keep them together and to bring them to the lab. They also have access to their texts. Given the emphasis on collaboration in the lab, it is actually easy for a 'student' to coast through the labs passively being the recipient of help from others. In order to prevent this and to encourage active learning students are told at the beginning of the course that they will have a lab final at the end of the term. This final is 'open book and notes;' students confront a novel data file and must carry out a series of commands in order to do a number of analyses on the data. The final, needless to say, is not collaborative. This seems to provide sufficient incentive, since I have yet to have a student get less than a 'B' on the final. And more to the point, I have had a large number of 'computer phobics' who have thanked me for helping them overcome their fears, frustrations, etc., with computers.

Go to overheads.

Field Study Lab Exercise

Directions: In order to prepare for writing your first lab report you are to complete the following demonstrations and procedures using the data file called 'NOSEY.SYS'. This data file is present on the networks in the Olin and Myrin computer labs.

1. Boot the system, and at the system prompt enter 'CD\PSYCY110'. You should then see the system prompt 'G:PSYCH110>'. Then enter 'SPSS-x' using A or B in place of the 'x' depending on the size of your disk.

2. Once you are in SPSS you must declare the NOSEY.SYS file as your active file. When you get the system prompt 'SPSS>' enter the following: **GET FILE='NOSEY.SYS'.** If you are successful in accessing the file, information regarding the file will be seen at the top of the screen.

3. In order to find out the variable names at the prompt enter **DISPLAY.** The variable names will be displayed.

You are now ready to begin to analyze, summarize and manipulate the data file. We will begin by demonstrating usages and options available with the frequency command. For each of the steps specified below inspect tables and charts carefully. For some of the frequencies we will request descriptive statistics. In those cases, copy the values for the mean, median, mode, and standard deviation into the space provided.

1. Use the **DISPLAY** command to list the variable names in the data file. What are these variables?

2. Use the **LIST** command to list the data.

3. Obtain a frequency table for the variable **TOTAL.** ENTER **FREQUENCIES TOTAL.** Be certain you understand what these numbers mean.

4. Obtain a frequency table and barchart for the variable **LOOK.** ENTER **FREQ LOOK /BARCHART.** Note here that the command FREQUENCIES has been abbreviated to FREQ.

5. Obtain a frequency table, barchart, and summary statistics for the variable **TOTAL.** Enter **FREQ TOTAL /BARCHART /STATISTICS=ALL.**

6. Obtain the summary statistics for the variable **LOOK** omitting the table and the barchart. Enter **FREQ LOOK /FORMAT=NOTABLE /STATISTICS=ALL.**

7. Now compute the mean, median, mode, standard deviation, and range for the **TOTAL** variable and enter the results in the table on the following page.

	MEAN	MEDIAN	MODE	STD. DEV.	RANGE
MIN10					

Notice that in obtaining means using the FREQUENCIES command, we get the average percentage of the variable summed over all conditions. We can also get means broken down by other variables (as you will see in the following steps) by using the means command. This command specifies the variable for which we want the mean and the independent variable to be used for classifying the data. For example, in the means command below a mean will be obtained for variable LOOK broken down by sex; this will produce the means for looking 5 for men and women respectively.

7. Compute the mean number of students looking at the note as a function of sex and enter your results in the table below.

MEANS LOOK BY SEX.

	MEAN
MEN	
WOMEN	

8. Note that there is one problem here. We are using the absolute numbers of men and women. If we find, for example, that more women are or reading the note, is this because women are nosier or is it because there are more women than men in the sample to begin with. What we really need is some relative measure on which to compare men and women. For example, we might want to compare them in terms of the percentages of each sex that are on time or late.We can use SPSS to combine or alter variables according to any algebraicly correct formula. The command to us **COMPUTE** followed by a new variable name and an algebraic argument or statement. For example, to determine the percentages of students looking at the note out of the total numbers observed we can use the following command:

COMPUTE PERCENT=(LOOK/TOTAL)*100

9. Use the **FREQUENCY** command to look at the resulting variable.

10. Now use the **MEANS** command to determine the mean percentages of men and women respectively looking at the note, the total observed, and the percentages looking at the note. Enter your results in the table following after the next paragraph of instructions.

PSYCHOLOGY 110 - METHODS
SURVEY STUDY LAB

1. Using the 'FREQUENCIES' command determine the frequencies and percentages for each type of pattern for the **MOST** variable. As you already know, this is a standard command which gives results for a single variable.

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	CUM. PERCENT
Rock			
Rap/hip-hop			
Alternative			
Classical			
Country Western			

2. What do you do if you wish to ask if men and women differ in their music preferences. This question requires that the answers to the MOST variable be tabulated as a function of gender. In order to do this we use the 'CROSSTABS' command. Use this command to look at the relationship of gender to preferred music type (**CROSSTABS MOST BY GENDER.**). Enter the results in the table below.

PREFERRED MUSIC

	Rock	Rap/hip-hop	Alternative	Classical	Country
MALE					
FEMALE					

A. Which sex appears to favor country western, men or women? _____

3. Other questions could focus on either men or women alone; for example, is a man's preference in music related to what sort of area he grew up in. In this case we would first use the **PROCESS IF** command to select only men's responses for use in the next analysis. Note that the **PROCESS IF** command applies only to the very next command. Having made that specification then the analysis command should follow. These commands would appear on individual lines as below when using the 'CROSSTABS' command and the 'OPTIONS' subcommand to determine the relationship between the respondent's musical preference to home area type. The options command gives us additional information: the respective row, column, and total percentages.

```
SELECT IF (SEX=1).
CROSSTABS MOST BY HOME /OPTIONS 3 4 5.
```

Relationship of home area to music preference

	City	Suburb	Rural	Town	Foreign	Total
Rock	R C T					
Rap	R C T					
Alter.	R C T					
Class.	R C T					
Country	R C T					
Total						

A. What percentage of the men prefer Alternative?

_____

B. What percentage of the men are from an urban area?

_____

C. For those respondents who like rap what percentage are from an urban area? _____

4. Sometimes for data analysis the researcher will decide to look at the data in a different way. For example, upon looking at the data we might decide to analyze in terms of preference for rock to preference for all other types of music combined. In order to do this we must use the **RECODE** command to regroup those variables and we must specify exactly how we wish to recode the variable. An example follows recoding the MOST variable. Enter the command as it is written below:

```
RECODE Most(2 3 4 5=2).
```

From this point on, the MOST variable will consist of two values: 1 or Rock and 2 or Other. If you want to go back to the original coding you would have to reaccess the original data file.

5. Use the 'PROCESS IF', 'CROSSTABS' commands and the 'OPTIONS' and 'STATISTICS' subcommands to determine the relationship between the style women listen to most to the style women prefer to calm themselves down.

PROCESS IF SEX=2
CROSSTABS MOST BY CALM /OPTIONS 14 15 /STATISTICS 1.

a. In the table below, fill in the observed count, the expected value, and the residuals.

	Pop	Class.	Metal	Alter.	Other
Rock	OB EX RE				
Other	OB EX RE				

b. What is the value of Chi Square? [ ]
What is the probability [ ]

c. Do women who use pop music to calm themselves down also prefer rock music to other forms of music? Explain.

CORRELATION LAB

We will be using a data file called **INTIMATE.SYS** which contains the data which the class gathered. The data file is well labled so that it is usable as is. In this lab you will be introduced to a number of new analytic techniques which you will also need to use to complete your lab report.

I. LOOKING AT RELATIONSHIPS.

It is often useful to begin a data analysis by looking at the general form of the data. You can accomplish this by using the **PLOT** command to produce a scatter plot. Once you have accessed the data file using the **GET** command your first task is to produce a scatter plot of the MASC and FEM scales from the BEM scale. To do this enter the command as shown below.

PLOT /PLOT = MASC WITH FEM.

Inspect the resulting scatter plot. What does the plot suggest regarding the relationship?

II. COMPUTING RELATIONSHIPS.

As we have already seen, SPSS makes statistical calculations easy. In order to compute the correlation coefficient write the command as below.

CORRELATION MASC WITH FEM.

Notice that the actual value of the correlation is given as well as its significance level. It is not necessary to write a separate line for each correlation desire. Enter the commands given below. Notice what each command generates and complete the table below.

CORRELATION MASC FEM WITH ESTEEM OPEN.
CORRELATION MASC FEM ESTEEM OPEN.

CORRELATIONS

	MASC	FEM	ESTEEM	OPEN
MASC				
FEM				
ESTEEM				
OPEN				

III. ANALYZING SUB-GROUPS.

Sometimes it is of interest, or even necessary, to analyze a single subgroup from the larger sample. For example, computing the mean for the FEM variable for the entire sample gives us an ambigous result since it would be based on both men and women correspondents who might be expected to respond differently to the scale. In order to do this the **PROCESS IF** command can be used. It

is entered on a single line, and then the desired analysis is requested on the next command line. Enter the commands as below.

```
PROCESS IF (SEX=1).   [ENTER]
COR FEM WITH ESTEEM OPEN.   [ENTER]
```

The PROCESS command applies only to the immediately following analysis. If you wish to do another analysis on that subgroup you must repeat the **PROCESS** command. Alternately you may use the **SELECT IF** command. If you use this command the selected subgroup remains your active file. In order to retrieve the full group data you must reissue the **GET FILE='FILENAME'** command.

IV. SCORING THE BEM SCALE.

As the data file now stands it contains the scores for the masculine, feminine, and neuter subscales of the BEM. What we want to look at is what a persons sex role identification is as measured by the BEM. In order to do this we must combine these scores. Actually, to determine this we use only the **MASC** AND **FEM** scales. We determine a median for each, divide correspondents into high and low with respect to these scales, and then do assignment according to the following scheme: LoMASC-LoFEM = UNDIFFERENTIATED, LoMASC-HiFEM = FEMININE, HiMASC-LoFEM = MASCULINE, & HiMASC-HiFEM = ANDROGENOUS. In order to do this enter the commands as below. Be certain that you understand the rationale.

```
COMPUTE SPLMASC=MASC.
COMPUTE SPLFEM=FEM.
FREQ MASC FEM /STAT=MEDIAN.
```

	LOW	HIGH	MEDIAN
MASC			
FEM			

```
RECODE SPLMASC (43 THRU 99=1) (100 THRU 144=2).
RECODE SPLFEM (31 THRU 99=2) (100 THRU 128=4).
```

FEMININE

	LOW - 2	HIGH - 4
LOW - 1	3	5
HIGH - 2	4	6

```
COMPUTE COMBO=SPLMASC + SPLFEM
VALUE LABLES COMBO 3 'UNDIF' 4 'MASC' 5 'FEM' 6 'ANDRO'.
```

Using the **MEANS** command complete the table of means below.

MEAN ESTEEM SCORE

SEX	COMBO	ESTEEM
FEMALE	UNDIF	
	MASC	
	FEM	
	ANDRO	
MALE	UNDIF	
	MASC	
	FEM	
	ANDRO	

Gender and Patterns of Communication

Stacey Beth Zaremba, Ph.D.

Department of Psychology

Moravian College

&

Sandra Elaine Fluck, Ed.D.

Department of Education

Moravian College

Paper presented at the

9th Annual Conference on Undergraduate Teaching

of Psychology: Ideas and Innovations

March 22-24, 1995

Ellenville, N.Y.

Gender and Patterns of Communication

Abstract

Our students conducted a gender analysis on the communication patterns of their own videotaped conversations. This paper includes a description of the group project. Student responses and reactions to this project are also provided.

Gender and Patterns of Communication

Stacey Beth Zaremba and Sandra Elaine Fluck

Moravian College

In the Fall of 1994 we co-taught an interdisciplinary class entitled Gender Issues. This course is the capstone course in a series of seven courses in Moravian College's Core curriculum. The topics that are covered in the Gender Issues course are: the biological and social components of gender, gender and education, gender and language and communication issues, and gender and power. In this paper we describe a group project that we conducted with our students which examined gender and communication patterns. We provide examples, from our students projects, of how gender influences both verbal and nonverbal patterns of communication. We also share student reactions to this project.

This project was designed to make the students aware of gender differences in communication (verbal and nonverbal) by having them examine their own behavior in a group setting. Once the students analyzed their own behavior they related their conclusions to the findings in the literature on gender and communication. A review of the psychological literature on women's and men's behaviors, abilities, and personalities reveals that gender similarities tend to be more common than gender differences (Tavris, 1991). Nevertheless, researchers have found that gender differences are

typically substantial in verbal and nonverbal communication patterns. For example, consistent gender differences have been documented for body posture (Hall, 1984), voice quality (LaFrance & Mayo, 1978), and conversational interruptions (Brooks, 1982). In addition, while the stereotypes that we hold for women and men and communication are very strong, research findings often contradict these stereotypes. In the case of talkativeness, for example, the stereotype is that women are more chatty and talk more than men. In actuality, however, many women talk less then men. Men tend to talk for longer periods of time and use more conversational fillers (i.e., "um", or "ah") as a method of holding the floor in a conversation (Hall, 1987).

The students were instructed to read two pre-selected articles (Biernat & Wortman, 1991 and McIntosh, 1993) and come to class prepared to discuss and react to the assigned articles. The Biernat and Wortman (1991) article discusses the distribution of home responsibilities between professionally employed women and their husbands, and the McIntosh (1993) article compares the privileges of being white with male privilege. These articles were selected because the topics are thought-provoking and we believed that the students could personally relate to the material. The students were not aware that the assignment was related in any way to the topic of gender and communication, which was scheduled for the second half of the semester.

The exercise began by breaking up the class into gender-balanced groups (4-6 students per group). A twenty-minute block of time was scheduled for each group at the college Media Center so that the group's discussion of the reserve readings could be videotaped. While at the Media Center, students were instructed to sit anywhere they would like (within a prearranged semi-circle of chairs) and begin talking.

Once all of the groups completed the first portion of the assignment, the "true" purpose of the project was shared with them in class. The students were to conduct a gender analysis of the patterns of communication that were present in their videotaped discussions. We provided the students with two readings that helped to aquaint them with the research on gender and communication (Matlin, 1993 & Tannen, 1991). These readings review the research on gender differences and similarities that exist in verbal and nonverbal communication patterns. Each group was to assess whether the conversational gender patterns described in the literature (Matlin, 1993 & Tannen, 1991) applied to the patterns of communication in the group's videotape. Analyzing communication patterns is very straight-forward because the patterns can be easily observed and measured; for example, the number of conversational fillers could be counted for each gender. Each group analyzed its tape differently; for instance, in some groups the members analyzed themselves individually with respect to all of the variables, while in other groups each member of the

group analyzed everyone in the tape on one or two particular variables.

Once the videotape analysis was completed, each group presented to the class: 1) an edited version of its videotape (2-5 minutes), 2) an oral presentation of its findings, and 3) a one page summary of its findings and reactions to this assignment. The edited tape contained segments of the original tape, that demonstrated examples that matched those findings documented in the literature (Matlin, 1993 and Tannen, 1990). Students were also encouraged to discuss and present any instances in which their communication patterns did not match those described in the literature.

Overall, the communication patterns displayed by the members of the class closely matched that of the gender-typical communication patterns described in the literature. More specifically, the male students tended to take control of the conversation in several ways: they initiated the conversation, and they talked for long periods of time. The male students also used more verbal pauses and hand motions and they positioned themselves in what they perceived to be the "lead" chair. The males did not llok at the females when the females spoke. The females on the other hand tended to smile more, they sat perfectly still, took up very little space (sat compactly), and they almost always looked at the speaker.

Most of the research on gender and communication has been conducted with male and female subjects who are unacquainted. Our

students knew each other very well, because in Moravian College's Core curriculum the students take a series of courses together (the Gender Issues Core seminar is the last of the seven course). Because our students know each other so well, we did not expect our students to exhibit as many of the gender-related patterns as they did. Our findings suggest that subject familiarity does not alter the observed gender differences in communication patterns.

This exercise allowed our students to focus their attention on the details within a conversation that would normally go unnoticed or if noticed may not have been associated with gender. The exercise provided the students with a new awareness of themselves and their classmates. The students were able to observe how often their behavior is consistent with gender stereotypes. For the most part our students were not very happy with what they witnessed on the video-tapes. The males found themselves to be highly invasive and controlling (this was due in large part to the amount of physical space they took up and the frequency of their interruptions). The females, on the other hand, remarked that they found themselves to be much more passive then they would have predicted.

In general, our students really enjoyed this project because it was very practical. The students were glad to have the opportunity to examine their own behavior in this unique way. Many of the students remarked through the semester that they were continuously watching people interact and communicate with one another. More importantly, they would be analyzing the interactions as they relate

to gender stereotypes and the gender-related findings in the literature.

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